

**Impact of Reasonable Accommodation Perceptions on Managers' Attitudes Towards
Hiring People with Disabilities**

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Abstract

The low employment rate of people with disabilities (PWD) relative to the non-disabled workforce in New Zealand has persevered despite several legislative and policy reforms. Implementation of effective reasonable accommodation has been empirically shown to improve performance of PWD, leading to higher rates of recruitment and retention. The aim of the current study is to assess the impact of managers' perception of reasonable accommodation available in an organization, and the extent to which implementation of reasonable accommodation is easy, on their attitudes towards hiring PWD. An online survey was conducted among 162 full-time employees in a managerial role at a large healthcare organization in New Zealand. Moderated hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the hypotheses formulated. The results revealed that managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD is significantly and positively associated with managers' perception of the extent to which implementing reasonable accommodation is easy, though not with managers' perception of reasonable accommodation available in an organization. Furthermore, the results also indicated that managerial perceptions of the extent to which implementing accommodations that awarded employees with job flexibility was the strongest predictor of their attitudes towards hiring PWD. These results encourage organizations to review their reasonable accommodation policies and procedures, as ease of implementation improves managers' capability to support PWD, and increases their willingness to consider candidates in that group when making hiring decisions. Mere availability of reasonable accommodation from an organization is an insufficient predictor.

Keywords: reasonable accommodation, disability, people with disabilities, attitudes towards hiring PWD

Introduction

The employment rate of people with disabilities (PWD) in Aotearoa/New Zealand (NZ), has been persistently low despite several legislative and policy changes over the last two decades (Ministry of Social Development, 2016; Stats NZ, 2019). Disability is defined as any self-perceived limitation in activity resulting from a long-term condition or health problem lasting or expected to last six months or more and not eliminated by an assistive device (Ministry of Social Development, 2016). PWD are three times less likely to be employed than the general population (Stats NZ, 2020). Labour market statistics (Stats NZ, 2020) reported that the employment rate is 22.5% for PWD versus 69.3% for the general population; the labour force participation rate is 24.3% for PWD against 72.1% for the general population; the unemployment rate is 7.4% for PWD versus 3.9% for the general population; and the underutilization rate is 21.6% for PWD against 11.6% for the general population. Amongst those employed, PWD are more likely to work part time (31.7%) than the general population (20.1%). While PWD work an average of 25.6 hours a week with a median income of \$402 per week, non-disabled employees work an average of 31 hours a week with a median income of \$713 per week (Stats NZ, 2020).

Employment is a vital frontline solution to counter the poverty and dependency for PWD (Solovieva et al., 2011). Workforce participation is a primary activity for most people of working age (15-64 years) with several benefits like economic rewards, social interaction opportunities, sense of identity, higher self-esteem and self-efficacy, lower incidence of depression and suicide, greater autonomy, enhanced social status, and better mental well-being and life satisfaction (Boardman et al., 1993; Leonard, 2000; 1993; Modini et al., 2016). The employment aspirations of PWD, including financial security, meaningful work, and social relations, mirror the general population, with over a quarter of unemployed PWD stating a desire to be employed (Stats NZ, 2019). Considering the adverse impact of

unemployment on physical and mental well-being reported in the literature (Boardman et al., 1993; Leonard, 2000; Modini et al., 2016), we can reasonably assume that the well-being of unemployed PWD in NZ may be at considerable risk.

The vision of the NZ Disability Strategy 2016-2026 (Ministry of Social Development, 2016) is to build a non-disabling society where PWD have an equal opportunity to achieve their goals and aspirations. According to the NZ Disability Strategy 2016-2026, disabling experiences result from societal barriers that impede people with impairments. To promote equitable employment opportunities, the NZ Human Rights Act of 1993 makes it unlawful for employers to discriminate on the grounds of disability. Employers are obligated to ensure reasonable accommodation (RA) for PWD, in accordance with the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD; Moriarity & Dew 2011). RA involves modifying the physical and social barriers to facilitate equal employment opportunities for PWD without inflicting undue burden on the employer (Human Rights Act, 1993). Unfortunately, the practical and lawful interpretation of RA in NZ and globally is contentious (Dalziel, 2001; Moriarity & Dew 2011). Factors considered by employers are practicality, financial costs, resources available, potential disruption, and perceived effectiveness of changes (Human Rights Act, 1993). While RA requests cannot be lawfully ignored, organizations have the discretion to decide on its feasibility or explore alternatives when they are made (Human Rights Act, 1993).

RA has demonstrated the ability to mitigate disabling experiences while yielding many employer and employee benefits – retaining qualified employees, improved performance and productivity, reduced training costs, improved workforce diversity and morale (Padkapayeva et al., 2017; Solovieva et al., 2011). RA can be implemented from an organizational and managerial perspective. RA provided by the organization includes disability inclusive policies and procedures, infrastructure, and equipment. Managerial

support for RA includes RA planning and implementation, job redesign, flexible scheduling, training, communication etc. Organizational policies and procedures promulgating RA availability signal to managers and employees that leaders are committed to fostering a supportive work environment and promoting a culture of diversity and inclusion, leading to positive organizational and workforce outcomes – attracting larger talent pool, improved employee commitment, innovation, performance, and morale (Ball et al., 2005). Managers play a critical role in planning and implementing RA, being responsible for interpreting policies, modifying jobs, planning flexible work schedules, facilitating access to resources, and managing the impact of RA on co-workers (Akabas & Gates, 1991; Holmgren & Ivanoff, 2007). Therefore, managers' perception of the degree to which RA is provided by the organization and the extent to which RA implementation is deemed complex or cumbersome will most likely impact their attitudes towards hiring PWD.

Yet, the association between managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD and RA planning and implementation has not been explored. Drawing on a sample of managers from a large healthcare organization, the aims of this research are to assess how managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD are impacted by managerial perception of reasonable accommodation available in an organization, and the extent to which managers perceive that implementation of reasonable accommodation is easy. The disability categories examined in this study comprise physical, vision and hearing impairment, and invisible physical disabilities (e.g., chronic pain).

Literature Review

The global percentage of people living with disability is increasing due to improvements in medical technology and access to better healthcare facilities (World Health Organization, 2011). The World Health Organization (WHO) estimated that over a billion people (15% of global population) live with some form of disability (WHO, 2015);

additionally, the World Health Survey (Mitra et al., 2011) estimates that 110 million people (2.2% of global population) have significant difficulties in functioning – eating, walking, bathing and health development activities (WHO, 2015). The most recent Disability Survey (2013), indicated that an estimated 24% of the NZ population (1.1 million) identified as disabled and reported that they were limited by at least one impairment type (Disability Survey: 2013; Stats NZ, 2014). More recently, it is estimated that number of PWD totals 1.2 million (Murray, 2019). Physical impairment (mobility and/or agility) was found in 14% (632,000) of the New Zealand population. Sensory impairment (hearing and vision loss) affected the daily activities of 11% (484,000) of New Zealanders. Disease/illness (41%) was the main cause of impairment followed by accident or injury (34%). Among adults impaired by accident or injury, 47% reported that damage occurred at their workplace.

Disability is a complex and multidimensional construct that has transitioned from the medical model focusing on pathology within the individual, to a socio-ecological person-environment perception emphasizing the interaction of an individual's characteristics and environment while focusing on the disability and human functioning (Buntinx & Schalock, 2010). According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2011), disability is an umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions and is viewed as a continuum (WHO, 2011). The United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) broadly defines disability as encompassing physical, mental, intellectual and sensory impairments that may hinder people's full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others (Steinert et al., 2016). Disability represents the adverse aspects of the dynamic interaction between individuals' physical, psychological and physiological condition (e.g. spinal cord injury, blind, deaf, chronic conditions etc.), and contextual factors – personal and environmental (WHO, 2011). Personal factors include motivation and self-esteem, which influences an individual's participation in society (WHO,

2011). The environmental factors that significantly impact the degree to which PWD experience disability at the workplace include the natural and built environment, equipment, technology, support, relationships, attitudes, and policies (Solovieva et al., 2011; WHO, 2011). Poorly designed natural and built environment refers to buildings without elevators, or accessible washrooms for wheelchair users. Incompatible technology refers to providing a visually impaired employee a computer without screen reading or text to voice software. Inadequate support or relationships for PWD refer to managers and co-workers who are not sensitive or aware of the unique challenges caused by the impairment in a poorly designed environment. Disabling attitudes include erroneous stereotypes and beliefs regarding the performance and productivity of PWD. Disabling policies include those that intentionally or inadvertently impede hiring, training, promotion, and retention of PWD. The NZ Disability Strategy 2016-2026 concurs with the WHO, promulgating that disabling experiences result from societal barriers that impede the activities and participation of people with a health condition. Therefore, an inappropriately designed environment can create physical, social, attitudinal, and psychological barriers leading to disabling experiences.

Barriers to Employment for PWD

PWD face considerable difficulty in locating, acquiring and sustaining employment due to attitudinal and institutional barriers (Kulkarni, 2012; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014). Attitudinal barriers refer to the biased, prejudiced and stigmatized employers' views that impede PWD job applicants (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014). PWD are generally rated high on warmth but low on competence; this may reflect employers' disablist attitudes and low performance expectancies towards PWD (Fiske et al., 2002; Nota et al., 2014; Stone & Colella, 1996). Experimental studies demonstrate that even though employers perceive that PWD possess desirable employee attributes or their interview performance was favorable, they are still reluctant to hire them (Miceli et al., 2001). Institutional barriers refer to

organizational actions that deliberately or inadvertently discriminate job applicants with disabilities from acquiring and sustaining employment (Harcourt et al., 2005). For instance, personal biases during recruitment and selection unfairly preclude PWD from acquiring employment relative to non-disabled individuals and other minority groups (Hidegh & Csillag, 2013). Stone and Williams (1997) delineated the various steps in the selection process that can impede hiring PWD. Job analysis may lead to recruiters extrapolating ideal candidate profiles that extend beyond essential competencies, which may result in PWD being marginalized; for example, being able to stand is not an essential competency to be a lecturer or make a presentation (Boyle, 1997; Stone & Colella, 1996). Mainstream sources of recruitment such as high profile universities may be inaccessible to PWD and yield a job applicant pool that is devoid of PWD; while other low profile sources like disability friendly vocational rehab centers and education institutions may be overlooked (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014). In addition, the formats of assessments during the selection phase may be inaccessible to PWD. Examples include inaccessible websites and lack of software to enable visually and hearing impaired candidates' right to attempt tests on workstations equitably. Lastly, during the interview phase managers' personal biases and stereotypes about disability may influence hiring decisions; for example, believing that PWD are weak, lazy, incapable of managing stress, unreliable, or prone to taking unnecessary holidays (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014).

To mitigate employment barriers and unlawful discrimination, PWD can complain to the NZ Human Rights Commission which is New Zealand's national human rights institution working under the Human Rights Act 1993 (Harcourt et al., 2005). The Human Rights Act 1993 specifically prohibits employers from unlawfully discriminating against job applicants and employees based on disability relative to another person in similar circumstances. This applies to employment areas such as recruitment, selection, salary, training, advancement,

transfers, retirement, and terminations. Additionally, employers are obligated to ensure reasonable accommodation (RA), a critical concept in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) and ratified by Aotearoa NZ in 2008 (Moriarty & Dew 2011). The UNCRPD is overseen by the NZ Ministry of Social Development, which gives voice, visibility and legitimacy to PWD in NZ, and details specific employment rights that the government is obligated to implement and monitor. The UNCRPD defines RA as “necessary and appropriate modifications and adjustments, not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden where needed in a particular case to ensure to persons with disabilities the enjoyment or exercise on an equal basis with others of all human rights and fundamental freedoms” (United Nations: Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006, Article 2). Article 27 of the UNCRPD emphasizes that PWD have the right to work in an environment that is open, inclusive and accessible. RA aims to facilitate this right by mitigating the disabling experiences PWD face in the workplace wherein the physical and social environments are inappropriately designed.

Reasonable Accommodation (RA)

RA at the workplace generally implies individualized environmental adjustments (physical & social) that will facilitate a PWD employee’s equitable access to employment, performance, training, promotion and retention without incurring undue financial hardship (Crampton & Hodge, 2003). Research have empirically identified several effective RA practices which include assistive technology, personal assistance services, built environment (workstation & workplace), scheduling, job restructuring, work location, transportation, communication, workplace culture, partnerships etc. (Padkapayeva et al., 2017). RA practices can be classified under three groups: (1) physical/technological modifications enhancing workplace and workstation accessibility; (2) workplace flexibility and autonomy accommodations; and (3) social inclusion and integration accommodations (Padkapayeva et

al., 2017). Physical/technological modifications address by innovatively modifying existing equipment, technology, workstations, physical work environment to overcome performance and physical accessibility barriers; thus, empowering PWD to acquire and retain employment in a safe, comfortable and equitable environment. Workplace flexibility accommodations address the rigid workplace and schedule constraints imposed by employers in the past by allowing employees flexibility with the location and schedules resulting in enhanced autonomy; for example, job modifications, personal assistance services, scheduling, and work location/transportation accommodations. Social Accommodations promote workplace inclusion and integration by improving organizational and co-worker attitudes towards PWD, workplace culture, communication methods, inclusive recruitment and hiring processes, and partnerships. The description of the different types of RA is depicted in Table 1 (Appendix E, Table 1).

Direct and Indirect Benefits of Reasonable Accommodation

Planning, developing and implementing RA successfully can yield several direct and indirect benefits to the employer, which has been empirically demonstrated. In a national study (Solovieva et al., 2011), employers reported that RA was effective in empowering PWD to perform on par (if not better) with co-workers and improving productivity. Direct benefits reported by employers included: hiring, retaining and promoting qualified employees, improvements in productivity and workforce diversity, and mitigated/reduced training costs, absenteeism, and compensation via insurance. The estimated economic value of direct benefits was reported as at least \$1000 with the average cost of RA less than \$500. Indirect benefits reported by employers included: improvements in co-worker interactions, company morale, overall organizational productivity, workplace safety, and customer interactions. Employees reporting a substantial limitation in functional ability reduced from 21% to 4% when RA requests were approved. Job Accommodation Network, a

comprehensive resource on workplace accommodations, also conducted a study wherein employers reported high satisfaction with the RA (Hartnett et al., 2011). The reported direct benefits included retention of qualified employee and improved employee and organizational productivity. The reported indirect benefits included improvements in company morale and interactions with coworkers and customers. Employee benefits included improvements in motivation, productivity, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, management-labor communication and relations, and intention to quit. Company benefits included improvements in, productivity, public image, customer service, workplace culture, company morale, fairness perception, absenteeism, turnover, and legal, hiring and training expenses. Therefore, RA is an essential job resource for PWD to meet job demands and improve job performance and productivity.

Manager's Role in Reasonable Accommodation

Planning, developing and implementing RA effectively requires organizational and managerial support (Padkapayeva et al., 2017). At the organizational level, disability inclusive policies and procedures, infrastructural and equipment, budgets, workplace culture are essential, while at the managerial level redesigning jobs, scheduling, training, and communication with employees and stakeholders is crucial. In a national study, employers reported that the lead decision-making authority to provide RA was not only mandated to HR but also managers and/or supervisors (Solovieva et al., 2011). The manager's role in facilitating the job experience of PWD is critical as they are responsible for interpreting RA policies and procedures, modifying jobs, planning work schedules, facilitating access to resources, monitoring employees' health and performance, managing communication with key stakeholders, being considerate and empathetic, and managing impact of RA on co-workers, team and organizational effectiveness (Akabas & Gates, 1991; Franche et al., 2005; Nelson et al., 2016). Thus, a manager's role is critical with respect to planning, developing

and implementing RA, which is a job demand from their perspective wherein resources available are instrumental.

The effectiveness of RA implementation is affected by managers' ability to accurately assess conditions hampering their job performance and resulting problems, plan and implement effective RA, monitor RA effectiveness, and facilitate communications with co-workers and stakeholders (Gates et al., 1996). Research has detailed several factors that can make RA implementation more demanding and complex (Williams-Whitt et al., 2016); this will be delineated next.

RA Implementation Complexity

Planning, developing and implementing RA is not a one-time event, but a continuous process that includes several steps, namely needs identification, technological assessment, job/task analysis, problem solving, cost analysis, solution development, implementation, training and follow-up (Langton & Ramseur, 2001; Tompa et al., 2015). The Conference Board of Canada (2012) recommends a 4-step process: recognizing the need for accommodation, gathering relevant information and assessing needs, preparing formal individual accommodation plan, and lastly implementing, monitoring, and reviewing the RA plan. Implementing RA effectively requires managers to interpret organizational policies and procedures, facilitate access to organizational resources, monitor employees' performance, communicate effectively, show empathy and consideration, coordinate with stakeholders, and use discretionary powers judiciously (Akabas & Gates, 1991; Gates, 1993; Nelson et al., 2016; Nordqvist et al., 2003; McLellan et al., 2001). These tasks are over and above their daily duties, which may lead to increased job demands, namely workload, time constraints, resource deficits, higher complexity, and reduced flexibility. This makes RA implementation a time consuming and complex endeavor involving considerable physical and cognitive attention (Bashir & Ramay, 2010; Costa et al., 2006; Demerouti et al., 2004; Williams-Whitt

et al., 2016). Therefore, RA implementation can be a potentially complex job demand borne by managers.

Williams-Whitt et al. (2016) has outlined several factors that may influence the complexity of the RA implementation process. A manager who is educated and aware about disability policy and issues is likely understand the nuances involved, be more sensitive to PWD, and implement RA more effectively. In addition, clearly defined RA policies, procedures and options can improve interpretation and result in a higher consistency of effective RA implementation. Conversely, diverse or ambiguous policies, procedures and options can impede interpretation and make it difficult to decide which RA option is the most feasible and safe in the long run. Implementing RA may involve coordination with several stakeholders and managing co-worker reactions and impact, resulting in additional workload and complexity. Managers inexperienced in implementing RA are more likely to make errors in choosing the correct RA option due to unforeseen challenges. For example, relocating the workstation of an employee due to an inaccessible environment may result in social isolation (McNaughton et al., 2014) which is undesirable; choosing the wrong equipment can be counterproductive too. Erroneous or unsatisfactory RA implementation can result in repetition of the RA process, further depleting limited time and monetary resources. The severity of the disability may require implementation of more than one RA option and increase the risk to the employees' health in case of erroneous implementation; thus, the additional pressure on the manager can increase the complexity. In summary, low awareness of disability and RA policies and procedures, ambiguous policies, disability severity, inexperience, risk of RA on employee's health, stakeholder coordination, managing employee impact and reaction, and time and monetary cost of erroneous implementation comprise the factors that enhance RA implementation complexity.

Complex jobs are more demanding and can adversely affect employees' physical and psychological well-being when job resources are inadequate (Aas et al., 2008). The empirical evidence on the adverse impact of complex job demands on the physical and psychological well-being has been established (Edwards et al., 1998; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In a longitudinal study, Schaubroeck et al., (1994) found that psychological job-related complexity was positively associated with cardiovascular illness symptoms. Furthermore, Park et al. (2012) found that job complexity resulted in job strain only when occupational demands exceeded employees' abilities and skills (i.e., job resources). Therefore, it is reasonable to posit that if managers' perception of RA implementation complexity is high (high job demand), and managers' perception of RA provided by organization is low (low job resource), then adverse outcomes like job strain are likely. In practice, managers who experience planning, developing and implementing RA as a significant job demand may consequently espouse negative attitudes towards hiring PWD, especially when further support from the organization is lacking. Despite its intuitive appeal, these relationships have not been explored in the literature.

Managerial Attitudes toward Hiring PWD

Managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD are the most significant determinant of employment outcomes amongst PWD (Levy et al., 1993; Louvet et al., 2009; Millington et al., 1994) and are generally considered responsible for the biases in discriminatory decision-making processes impacting every stage of the selection process (Millington et al., 1997). Attitudes refer to an individual's disposition to evaluate and respond to an attitude object (person or behavior) favorably or unfavorably; these responses are affective, behavioral or cognitive and may be expressed overtly or covertly (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1972, 1977). Changing managerial attitudes towards hiring and retaining PWD has been identified as a

difficult barrier to overcome (Bruyère, 2000; Chan & Strauser, 2007), which highlights the importance of understanding the factors that influence these attitudes.

Over the last three decades, researchers have explored several factors that may influence employers' attitudes towards hiring PWD; several researchers have unanimously reported that while employers held positive attitudes towards accepting applications and employing PWD, very few hired PWD in practice (Burke et al., 2013; Hernandez et al., 2000; Wilgosh & Skaret, 1987). Further analyses indicated that employers' evaluative responses regarding PWD in general – global attitudes – were positive in several studies. Levey et al. (1992) surveyed several Fortune 500 company employees who reported positive attitudes towards individuals with autism, cognitive impairments and psychiatric disabilities. Stevens (2002) also found that employers in the United Kingdom reported positive attitudes towards job applicants with disabilities. Overall, the literature is littered with several studies that have reported positive employer attitudes towards PWD (Ehrhart, 1995; Kregel & Tomiyasu, 1994; Burke et al., 2013). However, when researchers surveyed employers' planned actions or intentions towards hiring PWD – specific attitudes – they found negative results. Bricout and Bentley (2000) found that HR personnel rated PWD lower than they rated job applicants without disabilities. Pearson et al. (2003) reported that employers preferred to offer job interviews to applicants without disabilities relative to PWD. Fraser et al. (2010) also reported negative attitudes towards hiring PWD. It should be noted that the research literature reviewed has rarely differentiated between different disability categories while measuring employers' beliefs, perceptions or attitudes towards hiring PWD. In summary, the research literature demonstrates that while employers held positive attitudes towards PWD in general, their intention or willingness to hire were PWD was hindered with several reservations. The factors influencing employers' negative attitudes towards hiring PWD can be broadly grouped under a) erroneous beliefs and perceptions, b) inadequate knowledge of legislation,

c) lack of experience working with PWD, and d) organizational policies. These factors will be discussed in greater detail discussed and delineated below.

Erroneous Beliefs and Perceptions. Chan and Strauser (2007) suggested that employers' erroneous perceptions and beliefs might reciprocally determine the negative attitudes they held against hiring and retaining PWD. In a focus group study, employers reported several misconceptions about PWD, namely that PWD need additional time and help to perform, take longer to learn, have difficulty interacting with co-workers, and are more likely to take sick-leave, and become a financial and health and safety liability (Amir et al., 2009). Research has indicated that employers' misconceptions, doubts, personal biases and low confidence about PWD's abilities, productivity, and performance potential impede their decision to hire PWD (Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014; Peck & Kirkbride, 2001). Employers also held the misconception that severity of disability adversely affecting performance and productivity (Gewurtz et al., 2016). Employers participating in a survey have reported that job applicants who disclosed their disability in the cover letter evoked negative reactions due to erroneous beliefs and were less likely to be shortlisted for interviews (Bishop et al., 2007; Pearson et al., 2003). In summary, these results buttress the argument that erroneous stereotypes, perceptions and beliefs can ossify negative attitudes towards hiring PWD and subsequently impede their employment and retention.

Inadequate Knowledge of Legislation. Inadequate knowledge about legislation around disability, employment of PWD and RA can lead to adverse employment outcomes. Legislation dictates hiring and selection practices expected from employers regarding questions permissible during interviews and RA provision, with the aim of improving employment, retention and promotion outcomes for PWD (Gewurtz et al., 2016; Harcourt et al., 2005;). Chan et al. (2010) found that knowledge of national disability policy was positively associated with managers' commitment to hire PWD. Unfortunately, research

indicates that inadequate knowledge of legislation can have the opposite effect, leading to undesirable hiring outcomes (Kaye et al., 2011). Inadequate knowledge about RA legislation, regulations and practices amongst employers was found to be pervasive (McDonnall et al., 2013), evoking fear, discomfort and ill-conceived apprehensions about high costs related to RA litigation (Gröschl et al., 2007; Kaye et al., 2011; Rudstam et al., 2012), training, supervision, and medical insurance (Graffam et al., 2002; Harrison, 1998). Despite research indicating that RA costs are mostly low (Houtenville et al., 2012; Lengnick-Hall et al., 2008) several studies found that employers considered high costs of RA to be an important factor in their hiring decisions (Chi & Qu, 2004; Graffam et al., 2002). In summary, insufficient knowledge about legislation regarding disability, employment of PWD and reasonable accommodation can lead to fears and apprehensions adversely impacting employment and retention of PWD.

Lack of Experience Working with PWD. Employers who have no experience of working with PWD reported that employing PWD may have an adverse impact on employees, making them feel uncomfortable and uneasy during interactions; thus, adversely influencing their performance and productivity (Burke et al., 2013; Hernandez et al., 2000). Anxiety during interactions with PWD has been found to be a significant determinant of creating and maintaining negative attitudes towards PWD (Albrecht et al., 1982). Anxiety and feelings of discomfort may result from ambiguity, fear, and unpredictability leading to negative connotations about disability (Albrecht et al., 1982). Consequently, negative connotations associated with disability can lead to avoidance behaviors amongst employers and adversely influencing hiring of PWD (Culler et al., 2011; Morgan & Alexander, 2005). If employers perceive that costs of interaction with PWD outweigh the benefits, then avoidance behaviors may be preferred, resulting in their negative attitudes and misconceptions persisting and hampering employment outcomes for PWD (Hemenway et al., 2003; Nicoll,

1988). Alternatively, employers who have hired and worked with PWD in the past resulting in positive experiences are more likely to rehire PWD going forward (Albritton, 2005; Greenan, Wu & Black, 2002). Research indicates that employers with experience working with PWD held positive attitudes, and reported that their performance was on par with non-disabled employees, and were willing to rehire PWD in the future (McLoughlin, 2002; Olson et al., 2001). Hence, positive contact with PWD dispels anxiety during initial interactions that reinforce false stereotypes and misconceptions, and enhances likelihood of employment for PWD.

Organizational Policies. The impact of organizational policies on hiring and retaining PWD has received some attention. Habeck et al. (2010) surveyed 650 employer members of the Disability Management Coalition to assess the effect of absence and disability management (ADM) policies on retention and recruitment of injured employees and PWD job-applicants. they found that while ADM policies and practices had no impact on recruitment of PWD, they showed a significant positive association with retention of qualified employees by improving health management conditions and resolving disability and return to work issues. Chan et al. (2010) also found that integrating disability in diversity policies was positively associated with managers' commitment to hire PWD. Therefore, constructive changes at the policy level positively influence employment and retention of PWD.

To ameliorate the fears, concerns and apprehensions related to hiring PWD, employers and hiring managers have suggested that more information regarding job-applicants' disability, RA required, cost of RA, impact of disability on performance, productivity, coworkers, and organization is required to enable facilitation of informed decisions and organizational policies (Chan et al., 2010; Houtenville & Kalargyrou, 2012). In

response to this call, the relationship between RA and managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD will be investigated in this study.

Reasonable Accommodation and Managerial Attitudes towards Hiring PWD

Drawing on the Job Demands and Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), this study investigates the impact of managerial perception of reasonable accommodation availability and the extent to which implementing reasonable accommodation easily on their attitudes towards hiring PWD.

The Demands and Resources (JD-R) Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) postulates that an excess of job demands predicts job strain leading to disengagement and adequate supply of job resources predicts motivation leading to job engagement. The JD-R model is empirically established and posits that poorly designed jobs wherein job resources are insufficient to meet job demands require sustained effort that depletes employees' cognitive, affective and physical resources evoking stress and burnout (Demerouti et al., 2000; Demerouti et al., 2001; Leiter, 1993). Managers may be extrinsically motivated via higher probability of goal accomplishment, to employ PWD when their perception of RA availability and implementation ease is high, leading to favorable attitudes towards hiring PWD (Meijman et al., 1998). Alternatively, if RA availability and implementation ease is low, managers may perceive a lower probability of goal accomplishment while hiring PWD and prefer non-disabled individuals.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) further elucidates the factors that may influence managerial perceptions of RA and attitudes towards hiring PWD. According to the COR theory, individuals are motivated to protect resources in their possession and acquire new resources (Hobfoll, 1989). The COR theory also posits that individuals experience stress from resource loss or threat of loss in three situations: when

current resources are threatened; when current resources are lost; and when invested resources yield no benefit (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). In the absence of RA policies and procedures provided by the organization, managers may experience stress due to lower performance expectations from PWD. Therefore, motivated by resource conservation and avoidance of potential stress, managers may choose to avoid employment of PWD and consequently espouse negative attitudes towards hiring PWD in the future.

The impact of managers' perceived availability of RA and the ease of RA implementation on their attitudes towards hiring PWD has not been studied. Research has demonstrated that RA can improve the performance and productivity of PWD, and that the RA costs involved are mostly negligible, rendering them financially reasonable (Chan et al., 2010; Padkapayeva et al., 2017). In accordance with JD-R model, adequate availability of resources should equip managers to implement RA easily and effectively. Additionally, in alignment with the COR theory managers who perceive that RA implementation will be effective are less likely to experience stress from the threat of resource loss. Subsequently, managers are likely to have positive expectations regarding implementing RA to improve job performance of PWD resulting in positive reactions to hiring PWD. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H1. *Managers' perception of the extent to which the organization provides reasonable accommodation will be significantly and positively associated with their attitudes towards hiring PWD.*

Similarly, RA implementation can be highly complex and have an adverse impact on the physical and psychological well-being of managers in the absence of adequate job resources (Aas et al., 2008; Park et al., 2012). Managers experiencing adverse outcomes may be less motivated to hire PWD, and hence develop and espouse negative attitudes towards hiring PWD. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H2. *Managers' perception of the extent to which implementing reasonable accommodation is easy will be significantly and positively associated with their attitudes towards hiring PWD.*

In addition to the main effects of RA availability and complexity on managerial attitudes toward hiring PWD, RA availability from the organization (higher job resource) may interact with ease of implementation perceptions (lower job demand) to elicit positive attitudes towards hiring PWD. Conversely, when managerial perception of RA availability is low, the positive association between attitudes towards hiring PWD and managers' perception of the extent to which RA implementation is easy is likely to become weaker due to low job resources and negative expectations. Hence, we hypothesize that:

H3. *Managers' perception of the extent to which the organization provides reasonable accommodation will moderate the relationship between managers' perception of the extent to which reasonable accommodation can be implemented easily and attitudes towards hiring PWD. When managers perceive that reasonable accommodation provided by the organization is high, the positive association between managers' perception of the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy and attitudes towards hiring PWD will be stronger.*

Method

Participants

Non-probability sampling methods (convenience and voluntary) were implemented to recruit participants for this survey. Target participants included full-time employees in a managerial role at a large healthcare organization in New Zealand. An estimated 650 potential participants were invited to complete the survey developed online via the Qualtrics website (<https://canterbury.qualtrics.com/>). 279 participants clicked the online survey link. Listwise elimination due to non-responses (i.e. one or more scales not completed), resulted in

162 complete responses, for a response rate of approximately 25%. As per the organization's request, participation incentives were not offered.

To preserve anonymity of participants, the only demographic variables collected included age, gender identity, and ethnicity. Participants who did not report any demographic information totaled 69 (34%). Amongst those who entered their demographic details the sample consisted of 31 males (23.1%), 99 females (73.9%) and 4 gender diverse (3%) individuals. In total, 92 (71.3%) were 'NZ European', 25 (19.4%) were 'Other European', 7 (5.4%) were 'Maori', 3 (2.3%) were 'Pacifica', and 2 (1.6%) were 'South East Asian'. Age of the participants ranged from 32 to 74 years ($M = 53.27$, $SD = 8.87$).

Measures

A self-report survey using Likert scales was employed to collect data on managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD, managerial perception of the extent to which reasonable accommodation is available in the organization, and managerial perception of the extent to which implementing reasonable accommodation is easy (Appendix B). Definitions of disability and reasonable accommodation preceded the respective scales. The undesirable effects of common method variance were limited by ensuring that each scale was presented to participants on different pages (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012; Spector, 2006).

Attitudes towards Hiring People with Disability Scale (ATH-S)

To assess managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD, the survey items used by Woodley et al. (2012) were adapted to develop the 9-item ATH-S (Appendix B). Sample items include '*People with disability are less productive*' and '*It costs more to employ people with disabilities*'. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = somewhat disagree; 3 = Neither agree or disagree; 4 = somewhat agree; 5 = Strongly Agree). Low scores indicate a positive attitude towards hiring PWD, whereas high scores indicate a negative attitude towards hiring PWD.

Perception of Reasonable Accommodation Available Scale (PRAA-S).

To assess managerial perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation is provided by the organization, a 16-item PRAA-S was specifically developed in this study by considering possible reasonable accommodations (Appendix E, Table 1) proposed in previous research (Bruyere 1996; Chafkin 1993; Fiedler 1994; Scroggins, 2007). Sample items include ‘*Reasonable accommodation is explicitly outlined in the (organization) policies*’ and ‘*Disability friendly washrooms are available*’. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = somewhat disagree; 3 = Neither agree or disagree; 4 = somewhat agree; 5 = Strongly Agree). High scores indicate perceptions of high reasonable accommodation provided by the organization, whereas low scores indicate perceptions of low reasonable accommodation provided by the organization.

Perceptions of Reasonable Accommodation Implementation Scale (PRAI-S)

To assess managers’ perception of the extent to which implementing reasonable accommodation is easy/difficult, a 9-item PRAI-S was specifically developed in this study by considering possible reasonable accommodations (Appendix E, Table 1) proposed in previous research (Bruyere 1996; Chafkin 1993; Fiedler 1994; Scroggins, 2007). Sample items include ‘*Providing flexible working hours to employees with disability, while still ensuring the job gets done*’ and ‘*Providing additional supervisory support to employees with disability, as needed*’. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Very Difficult; 2 = Difficult; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Easy; 5 = Very Easy). High scores indicate perceptions that implementation of reasonable accommodation was perceived as easy; whereas, low scores indicate perception that implementation of reasonable accommodation was perceived as difficult.

Procedure

A cross sectional self-report quantitative design was employed in this study. The HR manager facilitated approval from key stakeholders within the organization before sending an email containing the survey link to all employees. The email explicitly invited all employees in to participate in a research project led by the University of Canterbury by clicking on the survey link provided. Follow-up invitation emails were then sent as research has demonstrated that it can improve responses by 25% (Sheehan & Hoy, 1997). The survey link was also advertised and made available via the online weekly newsletter. Employees volunteering to participate were led to the survey on the Qualtrics website where they were presented with an information sheet (Appendix A) which outlined essential details about the proposed research and sought their informed consent to participate.

The scales used to measure the variables of interest in the current research project and scales measuring variables of an alternate research project investigating ‘diversity and inclusion’ were included in the same online questionnaire, as both research projects collaborated with the same organization. It should be noted that while the current research only surveyed employees in managerial positions, the ‘diversity and inclusion’ project targeted all employees. Post consent, participants were first asked if they held a managerial position (In your current job, do you hold a Leadership/Managerial position?). Those who answered ‘Yes’ were given access to the scales of the current research project before then proceeding to the ‘diversity and inclusion’ survey. Lastly, participants were given the option to enter their demographic details before they were thanked for their time and valuable contribution.

Data Analysis

The data collected was statistically analyzed via IBM SPSS (version 26). Prior to data analyses, participants who submitted incomplete surveys were excluded via Listwise

exclusion in SPSS. Preliminary data analysis included an exploratory factor analysis to determine the underlying factor structure of measures employed, and to identify items loading significantly on the factors extracted. Additionally, reliability analysis was conducted to measure the internal consistency of each scale and shortlist the best performing item, post which, composite scores were computed.

Correlations were first conducted to assess the strength of the linear association between the predictor and outcome variables. A significant correlation coefficient ($p < .05$) would offer preliminary statistical evidence on the expected association between the variables of interest. A moderated hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then conducted to test the main and interaction effects hypothesized, and demonstrate if the predictor variable of interest explained a statistically significant amount of variance in the outcome variable while controlling for the effects of the other predictor variables. The coefficient of determination (R^2) will indicate if the variation explained by the model is significant; additionally, significant standardized beta (β) will indicate the predictive strength of each predictor. Significant interactions will then be graphically plotted.

Results

Preliminary Statistical Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analyses were conducted as the measures in this study have been significantly adapted and developed based on previous research; thus, a-priori evidence relating to their factor structure and the items loading significantly is lacking. Principal components (extraction method) with Varimax (orthogonal rotation method) was employed to identify factors underlying the measures as it yielded the best simple structure. The criteria used to determine factor retention in this study is the rule, eigenvalue greater than one (Kaiser, 1960) and the Scree test (Cattell, 1966). Since factors with eigenvalues slightly > 1

and those with eigenvalues slightly < 1 cannot be adequately discerned, the subjective Scree test – graphical representation of the eigenvalues plotted on successive factors – is also used. Factors above the elbow were considered for retention, as suggested by Cattell (1966). The criteria for retaining items loading on a factor was a significant loading $\geq |.40|$ (Cudeck & O'Dell, 1994; DeVellis, 2017). Items loading significantly on more than one factor with a difference of less than .20 are also eliminated if the cross-loaded factor is not deleted in the final factor solution (Cudeck & O'Dell, 1994).

Reliability Analysis

Internal consistency analyses of the factors/sub-scales derived in the measures will be evaluated via the Cronbach's α whilst employing the following thumb rule: excellent = $\alpha \geq .90$, good = $\alpha \geq .80$, acceptable = $\alpha \geq .70$, questionable = $\alpha \geq .60$, poor = $\alpha \geq .50$, unacceptable = $\alpha < .50$ (George & Mallery, 2003; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Additionally, item-total correlations (ITC) will also be assessed. ITC is a test of each item's worthwhile contribution to the scale measuring the same construct. Cristobal et al. (2007) recommends a minimum ITC of .30.

Attitudes towards Hiring People with Disability Scale (ATH-S). The factorability assumption that the variables are sufficiently correlated to identify the coherent factors of the 9-item ATH-S was first examined. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .89, above the commonly recommended value of .60 (DeVellis, 2017), and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (36) = 651.52, p < .001$). Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed to be suitable with all 9 items. Initial eigenvalues indicated that two factors were greater than one, cumulatively explaining 59.30% of the variance. Table A (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the first factor analysis of the ATH-S. Factor 1 formed by five items (ATH1-5) denotes unfavorable impact of hiring PWD on finance and productivity – 'ATH-Productivity', while factor 2 formed by 3 items (ATH6,8,9)

denotes unfavorable impact of hiring PWD on co-workers and workplace environment – ‘ATH-Social’. ATH7 (‘Employing disabled people is a health and safety risk’) loaded significantly on both factors.

Internal consistency of the 5-item factor/sub-scale ‘ATH-Productivity’ that formed the ATH-S was investigated. It displayed good overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .84$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .60 to .70. Item-total statistics showed that elimination of any item would not increase the reliability of the scale. Unfortunately, internal consistency of the 3-item factor/sub-scale ‘ATH-Social’ displayed questionable internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .62$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .40 to .48. Due to the questionable reliability, the 3-items (ATH6, 8, 9) forming the factor/sub-scale ‘ATH-Social’ were excluded from further analysis; consequently, ATH7 was retained in factor 1 – ‘ATH-Productivity’.

A factor and reliability analysis of the six shortlisted items is rerun. Table B (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the second factor analysis of the ATH-S. One factor was derived, cumulatively explained 58.60% of the variance. All six shortlisted items loaded significantly ($> |.70|$) on the Factor 1, namely ‘ATH’. Internal consistency of the finalized 6-item ATH-S displayed good overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .86$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .59 to .73. Item-total statistics showed that elimination of any item would not increase the reliability of the scale.

Perception of Reasonable Accommodation Availability Scale (PRAA-S). The factorability of the 16-item PRAA-S was first examined. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .80, above the commonly recommended value of .60, and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (120) = 1160.14, p < .001$). Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed suitable with all 16 items. Initial eigenvalues indicated that the first four factors were greater than one, cumulatively explaining 61.03% of the

variance. Table C (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the first factor analysis of the PRAA-S. However, a three-factor solution was preferred due to ‘leveling off’ of eigenvalues on the scree plot after three factors, insufficient quantity of primary loadings, difficulty in interpreting the fourth factor, and supported by types of reasonable accommodations found in the literature. Therefore, factor analysis was rerun.

Table D (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the second factor analysis of the PRAA-S, wherein the three-factor solution was forced. The three factors derived cumulatively explained 53.56% of the variance. One item (PRAA14, *‘The organization provides an advocate who effectively advises, supports and represents employees with disability if they experience problems at work’*) is eliminated as it failed to significantly load onto any factor. Subsequently, factor analysis was rerun.

Table E (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the third factor analysis of the PRAA-S. The three factors derived cumulatively explained 55.07% of the variance. All fifteen items in this analysis had primary loadings greater than $|.40|$ and no significant cross loadings. Factor 1 is formed by 6 items (PRAA5-8, PRAA12-13) and denotes accommodations made to the physical workplace environment – ‘PRAA-Environment’. Factor 2 is formed by 4 items (PRAA1-4) and denotes information about reasonable accommodation policies and procedures – ‘PRAA-Information’. Factor 3 is formed by five items (PRAA9-11, PRAA15 & PRAA16) and denotes accommodations made to equipment and materials that directly facilitate job performance – ‘PRAA-Job’.

The internal reliability of the 15-item PRAA-S, formed by three sub-scales/factors – ‘PRAA-Environment’, ‘PRAA-Information’, and ‘PRAA-Job’ was investigated. The 6-item factor/sub-scale ‘PRAA-Environment’ displayed acceptable overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .79$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .43 to .70. The 4-item factor/sub-scale ‘PRAA-Information’ displayed acceptable overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha =$

.79) with reasonable ITC ranging from .50 to .69. Lastly, the 5-item factor/sub-scale ‘PRAA-Job’ displayed acceptable overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .75$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .37 to .69. Item-total statistics showed that elimination of any item would not increase the reliability of the three sub-scales forming PRAA-S.

Perceptions of Reasonable Accommodation Implementation Scale (PRAI-S).

Finally, the Perceptions of Reasonable Accommodation Implementation Scale (PRAI-S) was analyzed. The factorability of the 9-item ATH-S was first examined. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .80, above the commonly recommended value of .60, and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (36) = 494.54, p < .001$). Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed to be suitable with all 9 items.

A two-factor solution cumulatively explaining 56.06% of the variance, was deemed to be the best simple-structure as initial eigenvalues indicated that two factors were greater than one, scree test indicated a ‘leveling off’ of eigenvalues on the scree plot after two factors, and interpretability of two factors is supported by literature on the role managers play whilst implementing RA. Table F (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the first factor analysis of the PRAI-S. One item (PRAI3, *‘Restructuring jobs to accommodate and make the most of the competencies held by employees with disability’*) is eliminated as it significantly cross-loaded on both factors. Subsequently, factor analysis was rerun.

Table G (Appendix 2) summarizes the rotated factor loadings in the second factor analysis of the PRAI-S. A two-factor solution cumulatively explained 57.41% of the variance. All eight shortlisted items in this analysis had primary loadings greater than |.40| and no significant cross loadings. Factor 1 is formed by five items (PRAI1-2, PRAI6, PRAI8-9) and denotes accommodations that afford employees more flexibility with their schedules resulting in higher job autonomy – ‘PRAI-Flexibility’. Factor 2 is formed by 3 items (PRAI 4-5 & PRAI 7) and denotes accommodations involving support that a manager can directly

facilitate to improve job performance, namely job restructuring, mentorship, training deliver – ‘PRAI-Support’.

The internal reliability of the 8-item PRAI-S formed by two sub-scales – ‘PRAI-Flexibility’ and ‘PRAI-Support’ – is investigated. The 5-item sub-scale ‘PRAI-Flexibility’ displayed acceptable overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .76$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .37 to .65. The 3-item sub-scale ‘PRAI-Support’ displayed acceptable overall internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .72$) with reasonable ITC ranging from .43 to .66. Item-total statistics showed that elimination of any item would not significantly increase the reliability of the two sub-scales forming PRAI-S. Finally, composite scores of the five factors derived from the scales/measures were created and employed in the current study for further analysis. A summary of the finalized scales along with their respective reliability scores are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Summary of finalized Scales and Sub-scales used in further analyses

Scale, Sub-Scale and Items	
Attitudes towards Hiring PWD Scale ($\alpha = .86$)	
ATH-1	Disabled people are less productive than staff without disability.
ATH-2	Employing disabled people can require disruptive changes to the workplace.
ATH-3	It costs more to employ disabled people.
ATH-4	Disabled people take more time off work.
ATH-5	Employing disabled people is a hassle
ATH-7	Employing disabled people are a health and safety risk.

Note. α denotes internal reliability scores (Cronbach’s alpha) of the scale/sub-scale.

Table 1 (continued)*Summary of finalized Scales and Sub-scales used in further analyses*

Scale, Sub-Scale and Items	
Perception of Reasonable Accommodation Availability Scale	
<i>PRAA-Environment Sub-Scale</i> ($\alpha = .79$)	
PRAA-5	The organization has appropriate ramps to assist employees with disability.
PRAA-6	The organization has appropriate handrails or support to assist employees with disability.
PRAA-7	The organization effectively modifies the physical environment to make workstations accessible to employees with disability.
PRAA-8	The organization reserves parking spots nearest to the building entrance for employees with mobility-impairment.
PRAA-12	Disability-friendly restrooms/washrooms are available and easily accessible.
PRAA-13	The organization allows employees with disability to control the lighting and/or temperature in their work area as needed.
<i>PRAA-Information Sub-Scale</i> ($\alpha = .79$)	
PRAA-1	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly outlined in organization policies.
PRAA-2	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly stated in job advertisements.
PRAA-3	Leaders are made aware about reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.
PRAA-4	Leadership training effectively covers how to provide reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.

Note. α denotes internal reliability scores (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale/sub-scale.

Table 1 (continued)*Summary of finalized Scales and Sub-scales used in further analyses*

Scale, Sub-Scale and Items	
<i>PRAA-Job Sub-Scale</i> ($\alpha = .75$)	
PRAA-9	Employees with vision impairment have access to assistive devices necessary to perform their duties – e.g. scanners, magnifiers, digital recorders, screen reading software, refreshable braille displays and/or braille embossers in all workstations.
PRAA-10	Employee portals, message boards and other sites are readily accessible for employees with vision and/or hearing impairment.
PRAA-11	Employees with hearing impairment are consistently provided with written copies of information communicated orally.
PRAA-15	The leave allowance provided at the organization adequately meets the needs of employees with disability
PRAA-16	Job sharing (i.e., shared workload with co-workers) is available for employees with disability when needed.

Perceptions of Reasonable Accommodation Implementation Scale

PRAI-Flexibility Sub-scale ($\alpha = .76$)

PRAI-1	Giving employees with disability additional time off to receive medical treatment, when needed.
PRAI-2	Providing flexible working hours to employees with disability, while still ensuring the job gets done.
PRAI-6	Providing additional sick leave for an employee with disability, when requested.
PRAI-8	Allowing employees with disability to rearrange their own work schedule.
PRAI-9	Allowing employees with disability to exchange/share work duties with a co-worker.

Note. α denotes internal reliability scores (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale/sub-scale.

Table 1 (continued)*Summary of finalized Scales and Sub-scales used in further analyses*

Scale, Sub-Scale and Items	
<i>PRAI-Support Sub-scale</i> ($\alpha = .72$)	
PRAI-4	Providing additional supervisory support to employees with disability, as needed.
PRAI-5	Adjusting training materials and delivery to be accessible to employees with disability.
PRAI-7	Assisting employees with disability to set daily or weekly work goals.

Note. α denotes internal reliability scores (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale/sub-scale.

One-way ANOVA

A One-way ANOVA was conducted to assess if there were significant differences in mean levels of managers' attitude towards hiring PWD between the demographic categories – gender identity and ethnicity. Within the gender identity categories results indicated that females ($M = 1.83$) had a more favorable attitude towards hiring PWD than males ($M = 2.19$). Amongst the ethnicity categories results suggested that Maori and Pacifica ($M = 1.82$) held the most favorable attitudes towards hiring PWD relative to NZ European ($M = 1.92$) and Other European ($M = 2.11$). One-way ANOVA results revealed that no significant differences between the categories within gender identity ($F(4,129) = 1.83, p = .13$), and ethnicity ($F(2,117) = .65, p = .52$) were present.

Correlation Analysis

Descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, skewness statistics and reliability coefficients (α) for all the variables were computed and presented in Table 2. Analyses of the histograms and skewness statistics ranging between -0.5 and +0.5 suggest that data were approximately symmetric and within the tolerable range of a normal distribution (Osborne & Waters, 2002).

Results indicated a significantly low negative correlation between attitudes toward hiring PWD and PRAI-Flexibility ($r = -.25$; $p = .002$) and PRAI-Support ($r = -.22$; $p = .006$); this negative association suggests that an increase in managerial perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy was associated with positive attitudes towards hiring PWD.

Table 2

Summary of Bivariate Correlations, Descriptive and Internal Consistency Statistics for all the variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 ATH	(.86)						
2 PRAA-Environment	.05	(.79)					
3 PRAA-Information	-.14 [^]	.34***	(.79)				
4 PRAA-Job	-.01	.54***	.39***	(.75)			
5 PRAI-Flexibility	-.25**	.18*	.21**	.25**	(.76)		
6 PRAI-Support	-.22**	.33***	.28***	.43***	.50***	(.72)	
7 Age	.04	.11	.15	.12	.08	-.01	–
<i>M</i>	1.93	3.09	2.70	2.78	3.16	3.16	53.27
<i>SD</i>	.73	.79	.77	.62	.73	.74	8.87
Skewness	.38	-.16	.04	-.35	-.22	.17	.21

Note. $N = 162$; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, [^] $p < .10$ (two-tailed). *SD* = Standard Deviation. *M* = Mean. Internal Consistency (α) scores are presented on the diagonal. Cases were excluded Listwise.

Hypothesis Testing

Post-Hoc Power Analysis

A post-hoc power analysis was conducted using GPower version 3.1.9.6 (Faul et al., 1992) to determine if there was sufficient power (i.e., .80) to test the statistical significance of the regression model with a sample size of 162 participants and 11 predictors. Results indicated that we would have 16.07% power of detecting a small effect ($f^2 = .02$), 92.38% power of detecting a medium effect ($f^2 = .15$), and 99.99% power of detecting a large effect ($f^2 = .35$) at $p < .05$ level. As our effects were small to moderate ($f^2 = .10$), the current

model achieved 77.37% power which is lower than the commonly accepted 80%; therefore, there was a 22.63% probability of a type 2 error – failure to correctly reject that null hypothesis.

Moderated Hierarchical Multiple Regression

To test the main effects and interactions hypothesized, a moderated hierarchical multiple regression was conducted. To minimize the threat of multicollinearity, the predictor variables managerial perception of reasonable accommodation available from the organization (PRAA-Environment, PRAA-Information & PRAA-Job) and managerial perception of the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy (PRAI-Flexibility & PRAI-Support) were mean centered to create index variables that formed the interaction terms (Aiken & West, 1991; Cronbach, 1987; Jaccard et al., 1990). PRAA-Environment and PRAI-Flexibility formed Environment*Flexibility. PRAA-Environment and PRAI-Support formed Environment*Support. PRAA-Information and PRAI-Flexibility formed Information*Flexibility. PRAA-Information and PRAI-Support formed Information*Support. PRAA-Job and PRAI-Flexibility formed Job* Flexibility. PRAA-Job and PRAI-Support formed Job*Support.

Prior to conducting multiple regression analysis, relevant assumptions were tested. We assume that independence of observations is satisfied. Sample size ($N = 162$) is deemed adequate to satisfy the ratio of participants to predictors (Maxwell, 2000). Cook's Distance values were also under 1 and standard residuals were between ± 3.29 ($Min = -1.52$, $Max = 2.69$), suggesting individual cases did not unduly influence the model (Hadi & Simonoff, 1993; Hawkins et al., 1984). Analysis of collinearity statistics reveal that there is no multicollinearity. Tolerance scores of predictors ranged from .28 to .76, greater than the recommended .20 and variance inflation factor (VIF) scores ranged from 1.31 to 3.61, below the recommended 5 (Belsley et al., 1980; Cohen et al., 2003). The Durbin-Watson statistic

was close to 2 (*Durbin-Watson value* = 2.25) suggesting that the values of the residuals are independent (Azzalini & Bowman, 1993). The scatterplot of standardized predicted values vs standardized residuals (Appendix D, Fig. 1) showed no obvious signs of funneling, suggesting the assumption of homoscedasticity has been met (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Visual inspection of the histogram of standardized residuals (Appendix D, Fig. 2) and P-P plot of standardized residuals (Appendix D, Fig. 3), which showed that points cluster around the line, indicated that values of the residuals were normally distributed (Osborne & Waters, 2002).

Main Effects. Table 3 illustrates the results of the moderated hierarchical multiple regression analysis conducted to test the main and interaction effects hypothesized. Model 1, wherein ATH was regressed on reasonable accommodation available from the organization, namely PRAA- Environment, PRAA-Information, and PRAA-JobPerformance, did not yield a significant variance ($R^2 = .03$, $F(3,158) = 1.52$, $p = .21$), and only PRAA-Information ($\beta = -.17$, $t(158) = -1.99$, $p = .048$) was a significant predictor; thus, lending some support to H1. These results suggest that the availability of information about reasonable accommodation is a stronger predictor of managers' attitudes toward hiring PWD, relative to availability of accommodations made to the physical workplace environment and accommodations made to equipment and materials facilitating job performance of PWD.

Model 2, wherein perceptions of ease of implementing reasonable accommodation supported by the manager (PRAI-Flexibility & PRAI-Support) were added as predictors, explained 10.4% of the variance in attitudes toward hiring PWD ($R^2 = .104$, $F(2,156) = 3.63$, $p = .004$). PRAI-Flexibility ($\beta = -.18$, $t(156) = -2.04$, $p = .043$) significantly predicted attitudes toward hiring PWD, and at a lenient p-value of .10 PRAI-Support ($\beta = -.17$, $t(156) = -1.82$, $p = .07$) was also a significant predictor. These results suggest that perceptions of

ease of implementing reasonable accommodation supported by the manager had a suppression effect on the significant predictive strength of PRAA-Information. It implies that managers' perceptions of easily accommodating employees via job flexibility and managerial support are stronger predictors of their attitudes towards hiring PWD relative to the mere the availability of information about reasonable accommodation via policies and procedures, communicated by the organization, which is consequently rendered non-significant.

Table 3

Summary of Moderated Multiple Regression Analyses^a

Predictor	B	SE	β	<i>t</i>	95% CI	ΔF	R^2
Model 1						1.52	.03
PRAA_Environment	.09	.09	.10	1.07	[-.08, .26]		
PRAA_Information	-.16	.08	-.17*	-1.99	[-.33, -.01]		
PRAA_Job	.01	.11	.01	.06	[-.22, .23]		
Model 2						6.63**	.10
PRAA_Environment	.12	.08	.13	1.4	[-.05, .29]		
PRAA_Information	-.12	.08	-.13	-1.55	[-.28, .03]		
PRAA_Job	.11	.12	.10	.97	[-.12, .34]		
PRAI_Flexibility	-.18	.09	-.18*	-2.04	[-.35, -.01]		
PRAI_Support	-.17	.09	-.17^	-1.82	[-.35, -.01]		
Model 3						1.57	.16
PRAA_Environment	.14	.09	.15	1.59	[-.03, .31]		
PRAA_Information	-.06	.09	-.06	-.63	[-.23, .12]		
PRAA_Job	.12	.12	.10	1.04	[-.11, .35]		
PRAI_Flexibility	-.19	.09	-.19*	-2.00	[-.37, .01]		
PRAI_Support	-.13	.10	-.14	-1.29	[-.34, .07]		
Environment*Flexibility	-.20	.13	-.15	-1.60	[-.45, .05]		
Environment*Support	.01	.14	.01	.09	[-.26, .29]		
Information*Flexibility	.11	.10	.09	1.09	[-.09, .30]		
Information*Support	-.10	.09	-.13	-1.19	[-.27, .07]		
Job*Flexibility	.22	.15	.17	1.50	[-.07, .52]		
Job*Support	-.12	.17	-.10	-.70	[-.45, .21]		

Note. a. Outcome: Attitudes towards Hiring PWD. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, ^ $p < .10$.

Cases were excluded Listwise.

Two-way Interaction Effects. Two-way interaction analyses between managerial perceptions of reasonable accommodations available and ease of implementation on attitudes towards hiring PWD were conducted. Results indicated that none of the two-way interactions were significant. Further examination of the effect sizes (t values) acquired by the interaction terms in lieu of the low power reported by the post-hoc power analysis suggest that a low sample size may have hindered the identification of significant effects of the interaction terms – Job*Flexibility ($\beta = .17$, $t(150) = 1.50$, $p = .136$), and Environment*Flexibility ($\beta = -.15$, $t(150) = -1.60$, $p = .11$). Nevertheless, these interactions are graphically plotted next, to better understand them.

As shown in Figure 1, the effect of managerial perceptions of implementing flexibility accommodations easily seems to change with the level of managerial perceptions of availability of accommodations made to equipment and materials that directly facilitate job performance. When perceptions of implementing flexibility accommodations easily is low, perceptions of high availability of accommodations made to equipment and materials are associated with better attitudes towards hiring PWD relative to perceptions of low availability of accommodations made to equipment and materials. However, when perceptions of implementing flexibility accommodations easily is high, perceptions of low availability of accommodations made to equipment and materials is associated with better attitudes towards hiring PWD relative to perceptions of high availability of accommodations made to equipment and materials.

Figure 1.

Two-Way Interaction of Flexibility and Job Accommodations on Attitudes towards Hiring PWD.

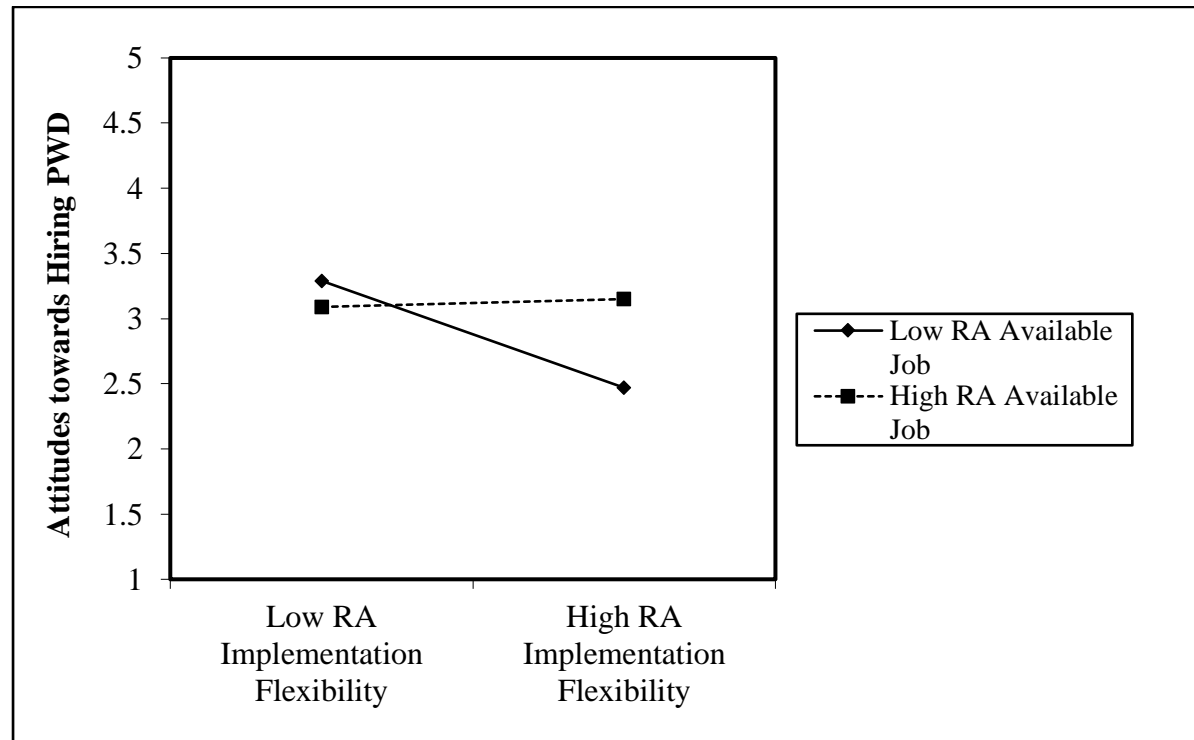
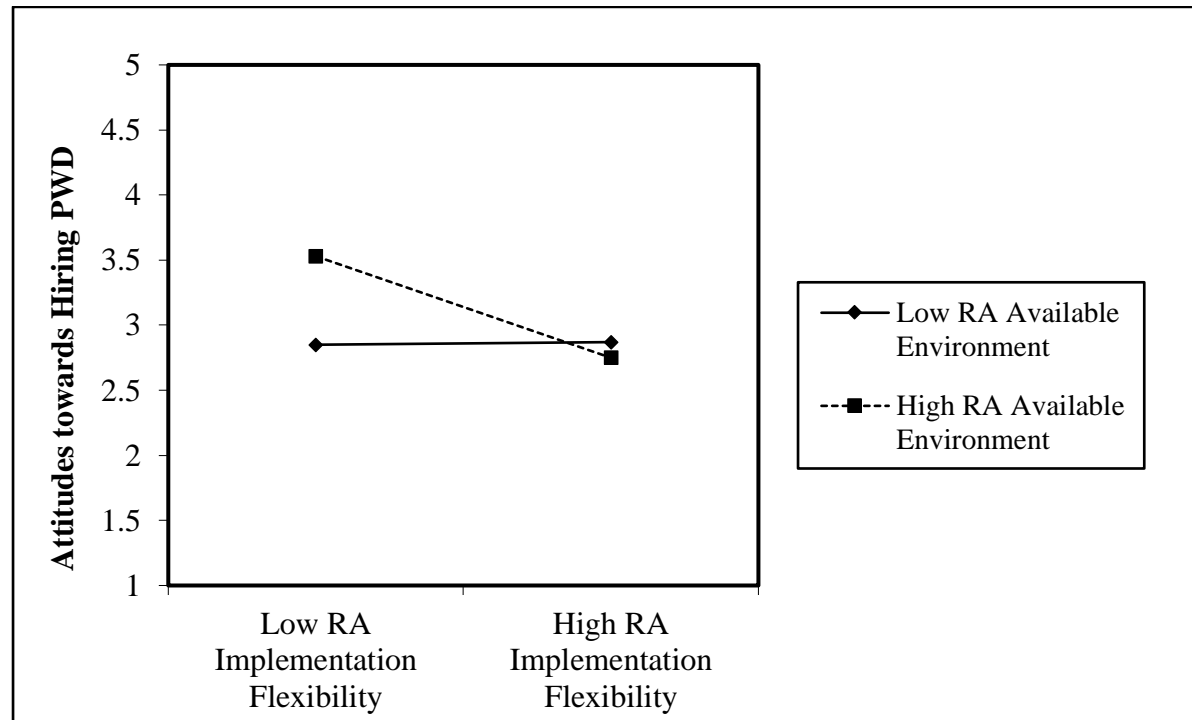


Figure 2 also shows that the effect of managerial perceptions of implementing flexibility accommodations easily seems to change with the level of managerial perceptions of availability of accommodations made to the physical workplace environment. When perceptions of implementing flexibility accommodations easily is low, perceptions of low accommodations made to the physical workplace environment is associated with more favorable attitudes towards hiring PWD relative to perceptions of high accommodations made to the physical workplace environment. However, when perceptions of implementing flexibility accommodations easily is high, perceptions of high accommodations made to the physical workplace environment is associated with more favorable attitudes towards hiring PWD relative to perceptions of low accommodations made to the physical workplace environment.

Figure 2.

Two-Way Interaction of Flexibility and Workplace Environment Accommodations on Attitudes towards Hiring PWD.



Discussion

The current research explored the association between reasonable accommodation and managers' attitudes towards hiring persons with disability (PWD). This research addresses the persistent low employment rate of New Zealand's PWD population relative to non-disabled individuals, which has not improved over the last decade despite the legislative reforms. The legislative reforms protect PWD from illegal discrimination at the workplace and lawfully obligate employers to reasonably accommodate job applicants and employees with disability (Ministry of Social Development, 2016; Stats NZ, 2019). Yet, employers are still hesitant to hire PWD due to negative attitudes, which may result in low representation of PWD at the workplace that further perpetuates these negative attitudes (Kulkarni, 2012; Kulkarni & Lengnick-Hall, 2014). Therefore, the aim of the current research was to assess if

managers' perception of the extent to which reasonable accommodation is available from the organization and easy to implement influences their attitudes towards hiring PWD.

Overall Findings

The results of this study indicate that managers' perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy was a significant determinant of their attitudes towards hiring PWD, particularly those accommodations that empower employees with flexibility. Furthermore, managers' perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation is available from the organization did not explain a significant amount of variance in managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD. Specifically, while the availability of reasonable accommodation policies and procedures was a significant predictor of managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD, this effect was rendered non-significant when managers' perceptions of implementation ease were added to the regression model. Lastly, the interaction of reasonable accommodation availability with perceptions of implementation ease did not significantly predict managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD. Interestingly, the three dimensions of managerial perceptions of reasonable accommodation availability were significantly correlated with the two dimensions of reasonable accommodation implementation ease. The findings will be discussed and evaluated in more detail below.

The finding that managerial perceptions of reasonable accommodation available from the organization is positively and significantly correlated with their perceptions of implementation ease was expected and consistent with the theoretical underpinnings of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model posits that sufficient provision of job resources is required to motivate employees to tackle job demands. In the current scenario, availability of reasonable accommodation is a job resource for managers to tackle the demands associated with supporting reasonable accommodation implementation for PWD. This finding also supports the empirical research related to complex job demands, which

concluded that high job complexity can have a deleterious impact on the physical and psychological well-being of employees when job resources are inadequate (Aas et al., 2008). Planning, developing and implementing reasonable accommodation is a dynamic and continuous process and can be a complex job demand (Williams-Whitt et al., 2016). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect high availability of reasonable accommodation from the organization to buffer the complexity and adverse impact of implementing reasonable accommodation, and positively correlate with managerial perceptions of implementation ease.

The finding that managers' perceptions of reasonable accommodation ease is a significant predictor of managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD was expected. These findings are theoretically consistent with the underlying mechanisms postulated by the conservation of resources (COR) theory that posits that managers may experience stress from resources lost, from the threat of losing current resources, or when resources invested are unlikely to yield benefits (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). Therefore, managers who perceive that reasonable accommodation implementation is complex and difficult may overestimate its cost relative to the benefit of hiring and managing PWD, resulting in negative attitudes towards hiring PWD. Conversely, managers who perceive that reasonable accommodation implementation is easy are likely to be more motivated and optimistic that it will significantly improve the job performance of PWD employed, resulting in positive emotions and attitudes towards hiring PWD.

Managerial perceptions of the extent to which effective reasonable accommodation implementation is easy, namely the 'flexibility' dimension, was associated with positive attitudes towards hiring PWD. In the current study, 'flexibility' denotes reasonable accommodation implemented by the manager that afford employees more flexibility with their schedules, resulting in higher job autonomy. 'Flexibility' includes the option for

employees to rearrange their work schedules, adopt flexible working hours, take additional medical leave, and share duties; thus, overcoming the rigid traditional constraints that impede PWD from performing the job effectively and leading to greater job flexibility and autonomy. The results of this study align with previous research suggesting that reasonable accommodation focused on workplace flexibility, namely modifications to work schedules, location, transportation, and job structure, is the most commonly implemented (McDowell & Fossey, 2014) and believed to be effective (Gignac, et al., 2015; Padkapayeva et al., 2017).

The finding that managers' perception of reasonable accommodation available from the organization was not significantly associated with their attitudes towards hiring PWD was unexpected. While the reason is not clear, it nevertheless suggests that managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD are not primarily influenced by the reasonable accommodation made available by the organization via modifications made to the physical infrastructure, equipment and policies. Habeck et al. (2010) surveyed 650 employer members of the Disability Management Coalition and found that recruitment of PWD was not influenced by disability management policies. However, their results indicated that retention of qualified employees was positively influenced by the policies and practices that mitigated return to work issues. This finding further highlights the importance of considering perceptions and objective data around reasonable accommodation effectiveness, along with implementation ease, beyond mere availability of reasonable accommodation.

The findings of this study can be further explained by attending to managerial role demands. Managers' traditional focus of only achieving operational targets have evolved to include staff development which can result in role overload, a significant job demand under the ambit of the JD-R model that can hinder motivation and engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Holmgren & Ivanoff, 2007). Research shows that pressure to deliver short-term goals, namely profitability and cost-reduction, is likely to result in staff development

policies being sidestepped (Harrison 2002). Thus, it is likely that managers' attitudes toward hiring PWD are influenced by reasonable accommodation implementation constraints, beyond related policy and availability.

Information signaling reasonable accommodation availability via policies, job advertisement, internal communications, and training content was a significant predictor of positive attitudes towards hiring PWD while controlling for availability of modifications made to the physical work environment and job-related devices and materials. This finding is congruent with the research by Chan et al. (2010) who found that managers' commitment to hire PWD was positively associated with pro-disability policies. Habeck et al. (2010) also found that disability management policies were positively associated with retaining qualified injured employees. However, adding ease of implementation rendered the information signaling reasonable accommodation availability a non-significant predictor of hiring attitudes in the current research. Thus, while the availability of information about reasonable accommodation and other organizational provisions are important to ensuring managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD, these attitudes are primarily shaped by ease of implementation. This may entail removal or reduction of managerial job demands and other obstacles that hinder the implementation of effective reasonable accommodation.

Limitations

The findings of the current research should be interpreted while considering the several limitations discussed next. The results indicated that managers' perceptions of availability of reasonable accommodation did not significantly interact with implementation ease to predict attitudes towards hiring. One reason for this finding could be the small sample size, which is directly proportional to statistical power of any inferential test (Cohen, 1988). Post-hoc power analysis of the current research indicated that the low sample size mitigated the statistical power required identify statistically significant relationships. Underpowered

studies reduce the probability of identifying genuinely true effects and result in a higher proportion of false negatives (Button et al., 2013). This may have been a factor in the non-significant findings that failed to support hypotheses 1 and 3. Hierarchical regression is prone to requiring larger sample sizes than multiple regression to achieve the required statistical power to detect significant moderator effects (Cohen et al., 2003). Future researchers should attempt to recruit a larger pool of participants to ensure sufficient power.

The low power may have also undermined the probability that the observed statistical effect supporting hypothesis 2 objectively reflects a true effect – the positive predictive value (Ioannidis et al., 2011). The magnitude of the observed effect may be inflated due to sampling variation and random error resulting in the proteus phenomenon and winner's curse, wherein the researcher fortunately discovers a large effect and is more likely to get published (Button et al., 2013; Ioannidis, 2008). Replication studies may be less biased to the extreme as their findings may be contradictory or produce effects of lower magnitude. Future replication studies should recruit a larger sample of participants to test the relationships examined here and derive a more accurate statistical effect.

The exclusive use of self-report questionnaires and cross-sectional data is a limitation that should be considered while interpreting the results, as it can result in common method variance (CMV) that affects the validity of the results. CMV occurs when the variance in the criterion variable is attributable to the measurement tools and methods rather than the construct alone (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Scaller et al., 2015). CMV can inflate or deflate the magnitude of the statistical associations and significance between constructs of interest resulting in some degree of biases and spurious interpretations (Podsakoff et al. 2003). To mitigate CMV, the scales were spatially separated within the questionnaire on different pages (Podsakoff et al. 2003; Podsakoff et al. 2012; Spector, 2006).

Future research can reduce CMV in several alternate ways as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2012). Collecting data at different times, locations, sources, and via different media can reduce CMV. Additionally, researchers can also use diverse scale formats, response options and anchor labels. For example, managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD can be collected from their subordinates, colleagues, and supervisors as well. The criterion variable can be measured using sources different from those used for the predictor variables. Acquiring data from two or more sources can enable researchers to find convergence, which would indicate that self-report data do not merely reflect idiosyncratic impressions and opinions (Spector, 2019). The correlation-based marker technique can be employed to uncover and partial out CMV wherein an additional construct measure is included in the questionnaire that is totally unrelated to at least one construct of interest (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Thus, the resulting correlation between these two constructs can be an indication of CMV effects, which the researcher can partial out from all the relevant associations or correlations by reducing the minimum correlation between the theoretically uncorrelated constructs.

Self-report responses to the attitudes towards hiring PWD could be susceptible to social desirability bias wherein participants respond in a socially desirable manner, resulting in distorted associations between constructs (Krumpal, 2011; Podsakoff et al. 2012). Participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality to mitigate social desirability bias, encourage honesty and obviate any fear of being identified and evaluated by researchers, employers or colleagues (Paulhus, 1984; Podsakoff et al. 2003; Steenkamp et al., 2010).

The cross-sectional design of the current study also has limitations (Wang & Cheng, 2020). Data collection at a single point in time, merely providing a snapshot of the employees' responses and may not be representative of what is truly going on in the organization. Additionally, since predictor and outcome variables are measured simultaneously, researchers cannot unequivocally establish the direction of the associations.

For example, the possibility that managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD determine their perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation is easy cannot be ruled out. Future research should rely on a longitudinal design or diary studies to replicate and buttress the results of the current study. Nevertheless, a cross-sectional design was preferred as they are relatively inexpensive, quick, and easy to conduct, while offering preliminary evidence of the hypothesized association between variables.

Responding to questionnaires require considerable cognitive effort which cause fatigue leading to participants responding with indiscriminate consistency or in a manner that sacrifices accuracy, thoroughness, and honesty in responses within and across scales (Krosnick, 1999; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Viswanathan & Kayande, 2012); thus roiling the estimates of the scales' reliability and validity. The scales in the current research were moderate in length and were estimated to take 10-15 minutes to complete; thus, mitigating the abovementioned shortcomings considerably. The use of questionnaires can also increase the probability of a low response rate; alternatively, face-to-face and telephonic interviews can result in a higher response rate. However, online questionnaires were preferred in the current study as they are inexpensive and can reach a larger absolute sample of the target population; additionally, self-report continues to be an extremely apt tool to acquire insight into an individual's perception, experience and emotions (Podsakoff et al. 2003)

Lastly, the use of a non-probability sampling method, namely convenience sampling also has limitations to some extent, as managers were targeted to participate based on their availability and willingness (Wang & Cheng, 2020). Bornstein et al. (2013) suggested that convenience sampling lacks generalizability and can result in estimation biases. The sample obtained could lead to selection biases, as it may not be representative of the larger population. Non-response bias and prevalence-incidence bias are common types of selection

biases (Wang & Cheng, 2020). Non-response bias arises when characteristics of non-responders are significantly different from responders. Prevalence-incidence bias arises when the sampling method and inclusion or exclusion process auto-selects individuals with characteristics that are not representative of the population. For example, it is possible that the managers who did not respond felt strongly about the objectives of the current research or did not trust their employers. Alternatively, it is also likely that responders of the current research were more proactive, empathetic or agreeable. The implications of the differences in the characteristics of non-responders and responders is practically inconceivable. Future researchers should employ probability sampling methods like simple random sampling wherein the target population is randomly selected and then encouraged to voluntarily participate; this would be preferred for its accuracy, rigor and representativeness as every member of the target population has an equal probability of being selected (Wang & Cheng, 2020). Nevertheless, the current study employed convenience sampling due to feasibility concerns and the exploratory purpose of attempting to ascertain preliminary evidence.

Implications and Directions for Future Research and Practice

The findings of the current research provide invaluable insight on the nuanced impact of managers' reasonable accommodation perceptions on their attitudes towards hiring PWD. The current research findings have significant implications for researchers, managers, and vocational rehabilitation agencies trying to improve the employment and retention prospects of PWD in NZ. Important theoretical contributions and practical implications are extrapolated and discussed in detail below.

Theoretically, the current findings contribute to the extant literature on the impact of managers' perception of reasonable accommodation on their attitudes towards hiring PWD. This the first study to investigate reasonable accommodation at the workplace via two distinct managerial perceptions: availability and implementation ease. The findings suggest that these

two perceptions are uniquely associated with managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD: managers' perception of implementation ease is a significant predictor of their attitudes towards hiring PWD, while managers' perception of reasonable accommodation available does not influence these attitudes when ease of implementation is accounted for. This prompts future research to replicate these associations and explore the various common and unique factors that may influence attitudes towards hiring PWD.

An invaluable contribution of the current study is the development of reliable instruments that can measure managerial perceptions of reasonable accommodation availability and implementation ease. They can be used and further improved in future studies. The items and scales utilized here were based on a review of the literature on the classification of reasonable accommodations (Appendix E, Table 1). The exploratory factor analyses of the scales adapted suggest that managers' perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation is available from the organization and the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy are multidimensional constructs. The three factors derived from the PRAA-S, namely Environment, Information and Job included items that denote accommodations made to the physical workplace environment, information about reasonable accommodation policies and procedures, and equipment and materials that directly facilitate job performance, respectively. Furthermore, the two factors extracted from the PRAI-S, namely Flexibility and Support, consisted of items denote accommodations that afford employees more flexibility with their schedules and those involving direct managerial support via resources, materials and guidance to facilitate job performance improvements. These findings align with the classification of reasonable accommodations reviewed from the extant literature – physical or technological, workplace flexibility, and social modifications (Appendix E, Table 1). Thus, the current study facilitated refinement of the items that can be

used by researchers and practitioners to measure managers' perception of reasonable accommodation availability and implementation ease.

The acceptable levels of reliability of the sub-scales and significant factor loadings should prompt researchers to investigate the dimensionality of these scales. Replication studies across different organizations, industries and nationalities can aid researchers and practitioners to develop highly robust, valid, and reliable psychometric instruments. Consequently, they will be better positioned to measure perceptions of reasonable accommodation in their organizations from a managerial perspective. They can then address the shortcomings identified by designing and implementing strategies to influence managers' motivation and engagement to implement reasonable accommodation requests effectively, leading to more favorable attitudes towards hiring PWD.

Practically, the current findings highlight the importance of reasonable accommodation policies and procedures that are easy for managers to interpret and implement, over and above reasonable accommodation made available from the organization. Merely making reasonable accommodation available via modifications to the physical workplace environment, equipment and materials, and policies, training content and job advertisements is not sufficient to influence managers' attitudes towards hiring. More important are their perceptions of how easy or difficult it will be to plan, develop and implement reasonable accommodation. Ensuring that the process of reasonable accommodation implementation is smooth and easy is crucial to fostering positive managerial attitudes towards hiring. The factors influencing the complexity and difficulty of reasonable accommodation implementation deserve close attention from researchers and practitioners. Education and awareness about the disability policies, well defined reasonable accommodation policies and procedures, guidance of managers experienced in implementing reasonable accommodation, and severity of disability can influence the extent to which

reasonable accommodation implementation is easy (Williams-Whitt et al., 2016). Future research should explore and identify additional factors that can reduce the complexity of reasonable accommodation implementation.

Although the nexus of causality was not tested here, the positive associations between managerial perceptions of reasonable accommodation available and the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy invite further examination of the role of reasonable accommodation availability from an organization in shaping perceptions of implementation ease, and subsequent attitudes towards hiring PWD. Thus, availability of reasonable accommodation from the organization can be designed, developed, and communicated by organizations to shape managerial perceptions in that domain.

Organizations should adopt a more holistic bottom-up approach where they review the challenges encountered by managers to make improvements in reasonable accommodation policies and procedures. The participation and involvement of managers and employees in the planning and developing reasonable accommodation policies and procedures may be crucial to ensure their effectiveness, increase the job performance of PWD, and consequently develop positive employer and managerial attitudes towards hiring PWD.

Lastly, while previous research has extensively investigated attitudes towards hiring PWD, it has not adequately addressed the different categories of disabilities in the workplace. People with sensory impairments (e.g., vision or hearing) require different types of accommodations in relation to infrastructure, equipment, and social or cultural compared to people with mobility impairments. The social etiquette or norms while interacting positively or negatively with PWD is also likely to vary significantly. An action research methodology and philosophy can be adopted to implement the transformative change desired (Lewin, 1958). Therefore, future research should be more specific about which disability categories or types they are targeting while measure employers' attitudes towards hiring and retaining

employees. Consequently, a better understanding of the shortcomings in the organization can be identified and appropriate accommodations can be made, leading to best possible outcome.

Conclusion

This is the first known study to assess if managers' perceptions of reasonable accommodation made available by the organization and the extent to which it is easy to implement reasonable accommodation influences their attitudes towards hiring PWD. Results suggest that managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD was positively and significantly influenced by managerial perceptions of the extent to which reasonable accommodation implementation is easy while controlling for managerial perceptions of reasonable accommodation made available by the organization, which was not a significant predictor. These findings imply that merely making reasonable accommodation available via modifications to the physical workplace environment, equipment and materials, and policies, training content, and job advertisements is not sufficient to influence managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD. More important are their perceptions of how easy or difficult it will be to plan, develop and implement reasonable accommodation in relation to flexibility and direct support.

To foster positive attitudes towards hiring PWD amongst managers, organizations should review, evaluate and improve the reasonable accommodation policies and procedures that empower managers to provide PWD with flexibility and support. The factors positively influencing the complexity of reasonable accommodation implementation, should be mitigated appropriately. As there is a wide array of accommodations that can be implemented to overcome social, attitudinal and physical barriers for different types of disabilities, it would be wise for organizations to involve managers and PWD in drafting reasonable accommodation policies and procedures as they may be in a better position to discern which

accommodations are easier to implement while considering their effectiveness. In conclusion, the findings of this research should prompt future researchers and practitioners to further delve into the nuances and intricacies of reasonable accommodation at the workplace and explore novel innovative practices that can resolve the low unemployment rate of PWD in NZ. Organizations can use the findings of the current research to better influence managers' attitudes towards hiring PWD.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Information Sheet for Survey Participants

Diversity and Inclusion Survey

Objective: The purpose of this survey is to support the Canterbury DHB's diversity and inclusion strategy by gathering staff views on: a) the current approaches to diversity and inclusion, and how they impact staff, and b) the availability of reasonable accommodation for employees with disability, and leaders' perceived challenges managing this staff group.

Research Team: This research is carried out by Oliver D Souza and Shalini Pandaram as part of their Master of Science Applied Psychology degree under the supervision of Dr. Joana Kuntz, who can be contacted at joana.kuntz@canterbury.ac.nz. She will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

Time Commitment: If you choose to take part in this study, your involvement in this project will include the completion of 1 online survey. The survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes for non-leaders, if you're in a management role it will take a little longer, around 20-25 minutes. The survey will automatically save your progress, giving you the option to return and complete it later.

Participant Rights and Risks: Participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty. Some of the questions may concern sensitive issues, such as gender identity, sexual orientation, ethnicity, disability and diversity. While it is unlikely that you will experience significant distress from answering these questions, if you do feel uncomfortable you are advised to withdraw from the study. If you require further assistance, you may contact your local GP.

Confidentiality: The results of the project may be published, but you will be assured of complete anonymity for all data gathered in this investigation: your identity and responses will not be known to us and therefore will not be shared with the CDHB. Data will be stored on a password-protected computer located at the University of Canterbury. At the end of the research, the CDHB will receive a report that will only include a generalized summary of findings. Only the named researchers will have access to data (on a password locked computer). The submitted thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee (reference: HEC 2019/10/BL), and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

I understand what is required of me if I agree to take part in the research.

I understand that participation is voluntary, and I may withdraw at any time without penalty. Withdrawal of participation will also include the withdrawal of any information I have provided should this remain practically achievable.

I understand that any information or opinions I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the research supervisor and that any published or reported results will not identify the participants or their place of employment. I understand that a thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

I understand that all data collected for the study will be kept in locked and secure facilities and/or in password protected electronic form and will be destroyed after ten years.

I understand the risks associated with taking part and how they will be managed.

I understand that I can contact the researcher or the supervisor Dr. Joana Kuntz at joana.kuntz@canterbury.ac.nz for further information. If I have any complaints, I can contact the Chair of the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz)

By clicking “**Next**” I am consenting to participate in the study.

Appendix B

Full Questionnaire

In your current job, do you hold a Leadership/Managerial position?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Attitudes towards Hiring People with Disabilities Scale

Woodley, A., Metzger, N., & Campaign, T. D. (2012). Employer attitudes towards employing disabled people

Definitions

Disability is defined as any self-perceived limitation in activity resulting from a long-term condition (lasting or expected to last 6 months or more) and not completely eliminated by an assistive device. (Disability Survey: 2013, Statistics New Zealand).

A Physical Disability refers to a long-term impairment resulting in a limitation of an individual's physical functioning – e.g. neurological conditions (multiple sclerosis); neuromuscular disorders (polio, muscular dystrophy); brain dysfunction (traumatic brain injury, cerebrovascular accident); spinal cord dysfunction (spinal cord injury, spina bifida); sensory disabilities (blindness, deafness); arthritic & orthopedic conditions; and other physical conditions.

An Invisible or Hidden Disability refers to disabilities that are not immediately apparent to an onlooker, but can sometimes or always limit daily activities – e.g. chronic conditions that significantly impair daily functioning (debilitating pain, fatigue, learning disabilities etc.); visual and/or auditory impaired individuals who do not wear spectacles/hearing aids and other invisible impairments.

“Please rate the following items to the extent to which you agree.”

*1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Somewhat Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree,
4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.*

1. Disabled people are less productive than staff without disability.
2. Employing people with disabilities requires disruptive changes to the workplace.
3. It costs more to employ disabled people.
4. Disabled people take more time off work
5. Employing disabled people is a hassle
6. Employing disabled people is a step into the unknown.
7. Employing disabled people are a health and safety risk.
8. Employing disabled people will unsettle existing workers.
9. Disabled people have a harder time fitting in the workplace.

Perception of Reasonable Accommodation Available Scale

Adapted from previous research (Bruyere 1996; Chafkin 1993; Fiedler 1994; Scroggins, 2007).

Definitions

Reasonable Accommodation refers to an employer's duty to comply with the principle of equal treatment (Human Rights Act 1993) with regards to employees with disability (EWD) by taking appropriate measures, where necessary, to enable EWD to have access to, participate in, or advance in employment, or undergo training, unless such measures impose a disproportionate/unreasonable burden on the employer. Examples include: accessible infrastructure (ramps & elevators), access to assistive devices, flexible work schedule etc.

“Reflect on ways in which the Organization makes Reasonable Accommodation available to employees with disability, and please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements.”

*1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Somewhat Disagree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree,
4 = Somewhat Agree, 5 = Strongly agree.*

1. Reasonable accommodation is explicitly outlined in the organization policies.
2. Reasonable accommodation is explicitly stated in job advertisements.
3. Leaders are made aware about reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.
4. Leadership training effectively covers how to provide reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.
5. The organization has appropriate ramps to assist employees with disability.
6. The organization has appropriate handrails/support to assist employees with disability.
7. The organization effectively modifies the physical environment to make workstations/sites accessible to employees with disability.
8. The organization reserves parking spots nearest to the building entrance for employees with mobility-impairment.
9. Employees with vision impairment have access to assistive devices necessary to perform their duties – e.g. scanners, magnifiers, digital recorders, screen reading software, refreshable braille displays and/or braille embossers in all workstations.
10. Employee portals, message boards and other sites are readily accessible for employees with vision and/or hearing impairment.
11. Employees with hearing impairment are consistently provided with written copies of information communicated orally.
12. Disability-friendly restrooms/washrooms are available and easily accessible.
13. The organization allows employees with disability to control the lighting and/or temperature in their work area as needed.
14. The organization provides an organizational advocate who effectively advises, supports, and represents employees with disability if they experience problems at work.
15. The leave allowance provided at the organization adequately meets the needs of employees with disability

16. Job sharing (i.e., shared workload with co-workers) is available for employees with disability when needed.

Perceptions of Reasonable Accommodation Implementation Scale

Adapted from previous research (Bruyere 1996; Chafkin 1993; Fiedler 1994; Scroggins, 2007).

“In your role as a Leader, please rate the extent to which you find it easy/difficult to implement the following reasonable accommodation procedures for employees with disability in your team.”

1 = Very Difficult; 2 Difficult; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Easy; 5 = Very Easy

1. Giving employees with disability additional time off to receive medical treatment, when needed.
2. Providing flexible working hours to employees with disability, while still ensuring the job gets done.
3. Restructuring jobs to accommodate and make the most of the competencies held by employees with disability.
4. Providing additional supervisory support to employees with disability, as needed.
5. Adjusting training materials and delivery to be accessible to employees with disability.
6. Providing additional sick leave for an employee with disability, when requested.
7. Assisting employees with disability to set daily/weekly work goals.
8. Allowing employees with disability to rearrange their own work schedule.
9. Allowing employees with disability to exchange/share work duties with a co-

Demographics

Ethnicity is a measure of cultural affiliation, as opposed to nationality or race, and is the ethnic group or groups that people identify with or feel they belong to. “Which ethnic group do you identify with? Please select the option(s) below that best describe(s) you.”

- ☐ New Zealand European
- ☐ Other European
- ☐ Māori
- ☐ Pacific Peoples
- ☐ South East Asian
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Indian
- ☐ Other Asian
- ☐ Middle Eastern
- ☐ Latin American
- ☐ African
- ☐ Other (please specify)

Gender identity refers to an individual's internal sense of being wholly female, wholly male, or having aspects of female and/or male (Stats NZ, 2020). “Please select the option below which applies to you.”

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Non-binary
- ☐ Transgender male to female
- ☐ Transgender female to male
- ☐ Gender neutral
- ☐ Gender fluid
- ☐ Agender
- ☐ Pangender
- ☐ Other (please specify)

Please state your Age in years: _____

Thank You

Appendix C

Exploratory Factor Analyses

Table A

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Nine Items measuring Attitudes towards Hiring PWD.

Items		Factor		h^2
		1	2	
ATH-3	It costs more to employ disabled people.	.80	.14	.66
ATH-5	Employing disabled people is a hassle	.76	.32	.68
ATH -1	Disabled people are less productive than staff without disability.	.76	.08	.58
ATH -2	Employing disabled people can require disruptive changes to the workplace.	.72	.28	.60
ATH -4	Disabled people take more time off work.	.71	.23	.56
ATH -7	Employing disabled people are a health and safety risk.	.55	.50	.56
ATH -8	Employing disabled people will unsettle existing workers.	.07	.81	.66
ATH -6	Employing people with disabilities is a step into the unknown.	.37	.67	.59
ATH -9	Disabled people have a harder time fitting in the workplace.	.16	.66	.46
Eigenvalue		4.26	1.07	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		47.38	11.91	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$

cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Table B

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Six Items measuring Attitudes towards Hiring PWD.

Items		Factor 1	h^2
ATH-5	Employing disabled people is a hassle	.83	.69
ATH-3	It costs more to employ disabled people.	.78	.61
ATH -2	Employing disabled people can require disruptive changes to the workplace.	.78	.61
ATH -4	Disabled people take more time off work.	.74	.55
ATH -1	Disabled people are less productive than staff without disability.	.72	.53
ATH -7	Employing disabled people are a health and safety risk.	.72	.52
Eigenvalue		3.52	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		58.60	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$

cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Table C

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Sixteen Items measuring Managerial Perception of Reasonable Accommodation provided by the Organization.

Items		Factor				h^2
		1	2	3	4	
PRAA-6	The organization has appropriate handrails or support to assist employees with disability.	.85	.11	.19	.16	.80
PRAA-5	The organization has appropriate ramps to assist employees with disability.	.83	.15	.18	.12	.75
PRAA-12	Disability-friendly restrooms/washrooms are available and easily accessible.	.61	-.13	.17	.21	.46
PRAA-7	The organization effectively modifies the physical environment to make workstations accessible to employees with disability.	.60	.21	.08	.42	.58
PRAA-2	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly stated in job advertisements.	-.01	.85	.17	.01	.76
PRAA-3	Leaders are made aware about reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.	.02	.82	.12	.17	.72
PRAA -4	Leadership training effectively covers how to provide reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.	.28	.73	-.03	.08	.61
PRAA-1	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly outlined in organization policies.	.01	.60	.39	.14	.53
PRAA-9	Employees with vision impairment have access to assistive devices necessary to perform their duties – e.g. scanners, magnifiers, digital recorders, screen reading software, refreshable braille displays and/or braille embossers in all workstations.	.30	.13	.82	-.02	.77
PRAA-16	Job sharing (i.e., shared workload with co-workers) is available for employees with disability when needed.	-.18	.02	.64	.43	.64
PRAA-11	Employees with hearing impairment are consistently provided with written copies of information communicated orally.	.34	.26	.64	.01	.59
PRAA-10	Employee portals, message boards and other sites are readily accessible for employees with vision and/or hearing impairment.	.42	.26	.60	.02	.61
PRAA-13	The organization allows employees with disability to control the lighting and/or temperature in their work area as needed.	.22	.05	.01	.80	.69
PRAA-8	The organization reserves parking spots nearest to the building entrance for employees with	.23	.20	.07	.64	.50

	mobility-impairment.					
PRAA-15	The leave allowance provided at the organization adequately meets the needs of employees with disability	.11	.01	.43	.43	.38
PRAA-14	The organization provides an organisational advocate who effectively advises, supports, and represents employees with disability if they experience problems at work.	-.23	.27	.35	.37	.38
Eigenvalue		5.30	1.94	1.33	1.20	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		33.13	12.14	8.29	7.47	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$

cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Table D

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Sixteen Items measuring Managerial Perception of Reasonable Accommodation provided by the Organization.

Items		Factor			h^2
		1	2	3	
PRAA-6	The organization has appropriate handrails or support to assist employees with disability.	.82	.22	.07	.73
PRAA-5	The organization has appropriate ramps to assist employees with disability.	.78	.20	.11	.66
PRAA-7	The organization effectively modifies the physical environment to make workstations accessible to employees with disability.	.72	.13	.20	.57
PRAA-12	Disability-friendly restrooms/washrooms are available and easily accessible.	.62	.20	-.15	.45
PRAA-13	The organization allows employees with disability to control the lighting and/or temperature in their work area as needed.	.56	.10	.10	.33
PRAA-8	The organization reserves parking spots nearest to the building entrance for employees with mobility-impairment.	.49	.14	.24	.32
pRAA-9	Employees with vision impairment have access to assistive devices necessary to perform their duties – e.g. scanners, magnifiers, digital recorders, screen reading software, refreshable braille displays and/or braille embossers in all workstations.	.21	.82	.11	.72
PRAA-16	Job sharing (i.e., shared workload with co-workers) is available for employees with disability when needed.	-.01	.68	.06	.47

PRAA-11	Employees with hearing impairment are consistently provided with written copies of information communicated orally.	.27	.64	.23	.54
PRAA-10	Employee portals, message boards and other sites are readily accessible for employees with vision and/or hearing impairment.	.35	.61	.23	.55
PRAA-15	The leave allowance provided at the organization adequately meets the needs of employees with disability	.26	.47	.03	.30
PRAA-14	The organization provides an organisational advocate who effectively advises, supports, and represents employees with disability if they experience problems at work.	.35	.39	.28	.36
PRAA-2	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly stated in job advertisements.	-.01	.17	.85	.75
PRAA-3	Leaders are made aware about reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.	.10	.13	.83	.72
PRAA -4	Leadership training effectively covers how to provide reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.	.29	-.01	.72	.60
PRAA-1	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly outlined in organization policies.	.06	.40	.61	.53
Eigenvalue		5.30	1.94	1.33	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		33.13	12.14	8.29	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$ cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Table E

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Fifteen Items measuring Managerial Perception of Reasonable Accommodation provided by the Organization.

Items		Factor			h^2
		1	2	3	
PRAA-6	The organization has appropriate handrails or support to assist employees with disability.	.82	.07	.23	.73
PRAA-5	The organization has appropriate ramps to assist employees with disability.	.78	.11	.21	.66
PRAA-7	The organization effectively modifies the physical environment to make workstations accessible to employees with disability.	.72	.20	.13	.58
PRAA-12	Disability-friendly restrooms/washrooms are available and easily accessible.	.62	-.15	.20	.45

PRAA-13	The organization allows employees with disability to control the lighting and/or temperature in their work area as needed.	.56	.10	.08	.33
PRAA-8	The organization reserves parking spots nearest to the building entrance for employees with mobility-impairment.	.49	.24	.12	.32
PRAA-2	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly stated in job advertisements.	-.01	.85	.16	.75
PRAA-3	Leaders are made aware about reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.	.10	.83	.13	.72
PRAA-4	Leadership training effectively covers how to provide reasonable accommodation for employees with disability.	.30	.72	-.01	.61
PRAA-1	Reasonable accommodation is explicitly outlined in organization policies.	.06	.61	.38	.51
PRAA-9	Employees with vision impairment have access to assistive devices necessary to perform their duties – e.g. scanners, magnifiers, digital recorders, screen reading software, refreshable braille displays and/or braille embossers in all workstations.	.21	.12	.83	.74
PRAA-16	Job sharing (i.e., shared workload with co-workers) is available for employees with disability when needed.	-.01	.07	.67	.46
PRAA-11	Employees with hearing impairment are consistently provided with written copies of information communicated orally.	.27	.24	.64	.54
PRAA-10	Employee portals, message boards and other sites are readily accessible for employees with vision and/or hearing impairment.	.35	.24	.62	.57
PRAA-15	The leave allowance provided at the organization adequately meets the needs of employees with disability	.27	.04	.47	.30
Eigenvalue		4.99	1.94	1.32	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		33.30	12.95	8.83	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$ cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Table F

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Nine Items measuring Managerial Perception of the extent to which Reasonable Accommodation Implementation is Easy.

Items		Factor		h^2
		1	2	
PRAI-8	Allowing employees with disability to rearrange their own work schedule.	.84	.11	.71
PRAI-2	Providing flexible working hours to employees with disability, while still ensuring the job gets done.	.83	.19	.73
PRAI-9	Allowing employees with disability to exchange/share work duties with a co-worker.	.66	.33	.54
PRAI-1	Giving employees with disability additional time off to receive medical treatment, when needed.	.59	.17	.38
PRAI-6	Providing additional sick leave for an employee with disability, when requested.	.47	.19	.26
PRAI-5	Adjusting training materials and delivery to be accessible to employees with disability.	.17	.87	.79
PRAI-4	Providing additional supervisory support to employees with disability, as needed.	.13	.82	.68
PRAI-7	Assisting employees with disability to set daily or weekly work goals.	.29	.58	.43
PRAI-3	Restructuring jobs to accommodate and make the most of the competencies held by employees with disability.	.49	.54	.53
Eigenvalue		3.88	1.17	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		43.10	12.96	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$ cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Table G

Exploratory Factor Analysis^a of Eight Items measuring Managerial Perception of the extent to which Reasonable Accommodation Implementation is Easy.

Items		Factor		h^2
		1	2	
PRAI-8	Allowing employees with disability to rearrange their own work schedule.	.85	.10	.72
PRAI-2	Providing flexible working hours to employees with disability, while still ensuring the job gets done.	.83	.16	.71
PRAI-9	Allowing employees with disability to exchange/share work duties with a co-worker.	.67	.32	.55
PRAI-1	Giving employees with disability additional time off to receive medical treatment, when needed.	.60	.19	.40
PRAI-6	Providing additional sick leave for an employee with	.47	.20	.26

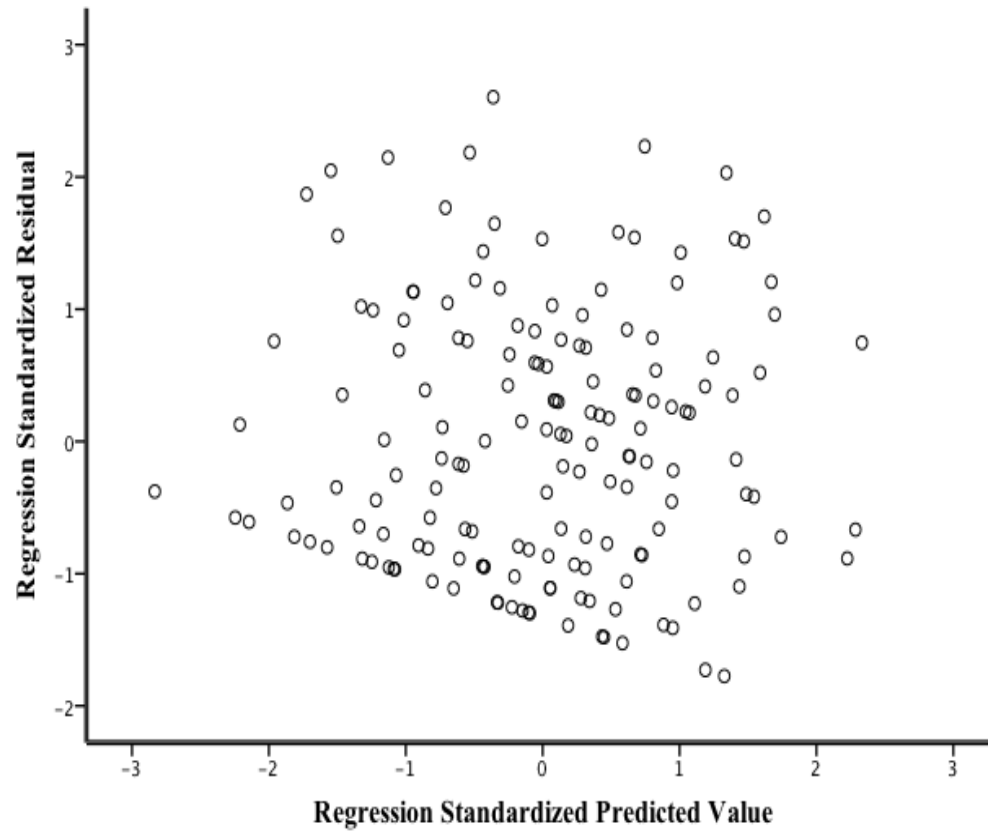
	disability, when requested.			
PRAI-5	Adjusting training materials and delivery to be accessible to employees with disability.	.18	.87	.79
PRAI-4	Providing additional supervisory support to employees with disability, as needed.	.15	.83	.71
PRAI-7	Assisting employees with disability to set daily or weekly work goals.	.31	.60	.45
Eigenvalue		3.43	1.16	
Percent of variance (after extraction)		42.91	14.50	

Note. ^aPrincipal Component factor analysis, varimax rotation. Figures in bold denote loadings $\geq |.40|$ cut-off. h^2 denotes communalities.

Appendix D

Figure 1

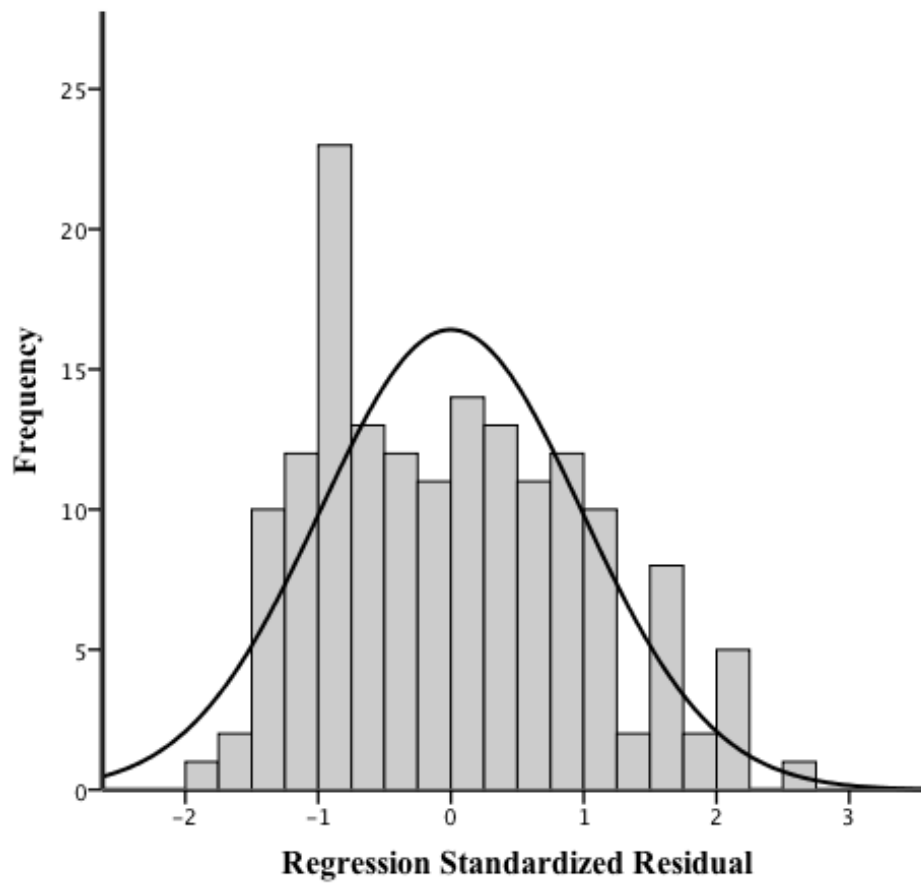
Scatterplot of Standardized Predicted Values vs Standardized Residuals



Note. Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Hiring PWD

Figure 2

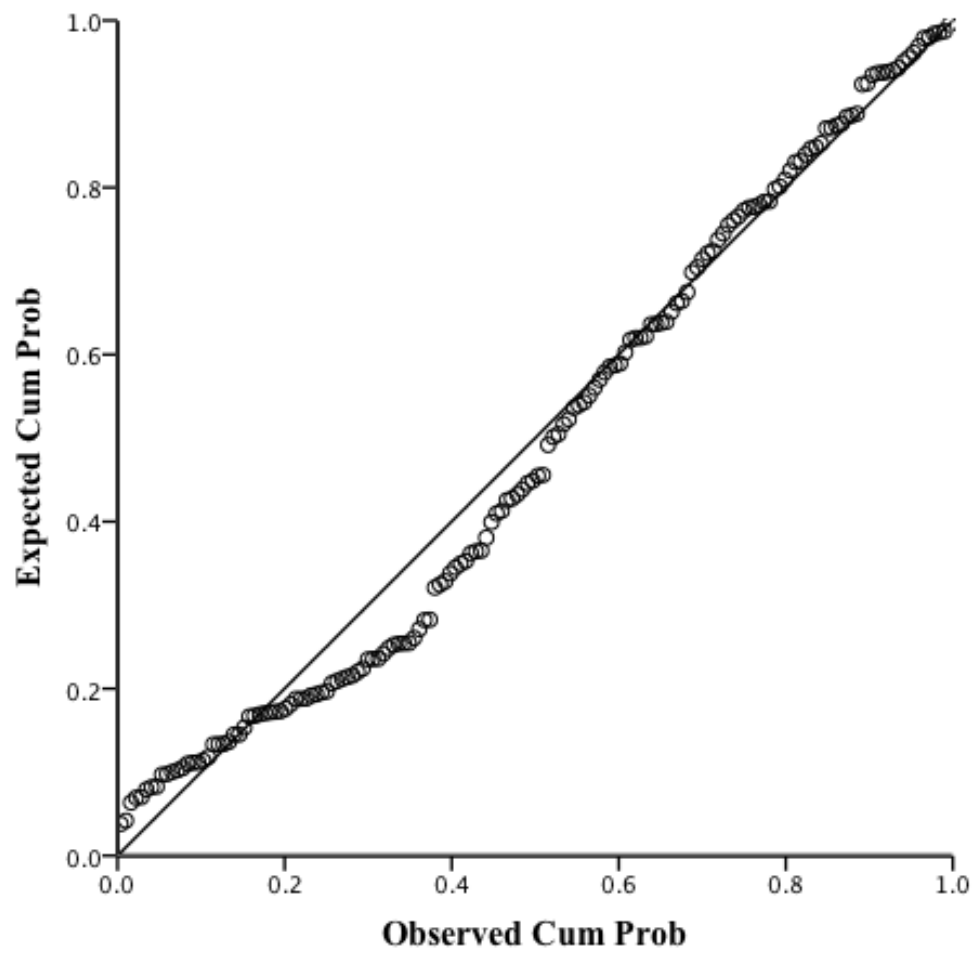
Histogram of Regression Standard Residuals



Note. Dependent variable: Attitudes towards Hiring PWD

Figure 3

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standard Residual



Appendix E

Table 1

Summary of Different Types of Reasonable Accommodations

Physical or Technological modifications	
Assistive Devices	Modifications made to equipment and technology – e.g. letter folding machines, electric staplers, magnifiers and electronic communication devices, screen readers, voice to text software (Langton & Ramseur, 2001; Inge et al., 1998; Schneider, 1999; Yeager et al., 2006).
Built Environment	Ergonomically modifying workstations and physical workplaces – e.g. ramps, railings, modified floor surfaces, appropriate door handles, automatic doors, braille signage (Abdel-Moty & Khalil, 1991; Neal-Boylan et al., 2012).
Workplace flexibility Accommodations	
Job Modifications	Employers modify the designated job expectations to improve the worker-role congruency/fit, to obviate overtime and increase productivity (Solstad et al., 2011; Stergiou-Kita et al., 2014; Solovieva & Walls, 2013).
1. Job Restructuring	
2. Customized/Supported Employment	Designing job roles specifically for PWD has been demonstrated to be viable for people with severe physical disabilities (Riesen et al., 2015; Gustafsson et al., 2013).
3. Vocational Rehabilitation	Additional training and support for existing customized job tasks and duties contingent on congenital disability and

	temporary/permanently acquired disability (Krause et al., 1998; Shaw et al., 2001; Stergiou-Kita et al., 2014).
Personal Assistance Services (PAS)	Coworker employed specifically to aid/support PWD employees to perform daily job tasks – e.g. clerical assistance, readers, transcribers, sign-language interpreters (Dowler et al., 2011; Solovieva et al., 2010; Stoddard, 2006; Zolna et al., 2007).
Schedule Modifications	Extremely effective and the most frequently used (Martz, 2007; Yelin et al., 2000); they include flexible work hours, modified schedules, part-time/reduced work schedule, and inclusive leave policies to accommodate impediments to full-time employment is temporarily and permanently unfeasible (Gignac, Cao & McAlpine, 2015; Butterfield & Ramseur, 2004).
Work Location/Transportation	Negates the necessity to travel; e.g. accessible transportation and/or parking, telework (Kaplan et al., 2006; McNaughton et al., 2014).
Social Accommodations	
Workplace Culture	Drafting diversity and inclusion policies have demonstrated its effectiveness in changing attitudes, clarifying misconceptions and stereotypes, and building a supportive and inclusive workplace climate where PWD have an equal opportunity to make meaningful contributions (Kalef et al., 2014; Storey & Certo, 1996; Hashim & Wok, 2014). Modifying workstations and schedules appropriately can also promote social inclusion via coworker interactions as allocating alternative work spaces and telework can promote isolation (Gignac et al., 2015; Wehman

	et al., 2003).
Communication	Proven to be the first and most critical accommodation where employers must determine employees' preferred mode of communication and modify the social environment (e.g. training managers & co-workers) to ensure seamless two-way communication (Shaw et al., 2013; Hansen, 1999; Golub, 2006).
Inclusive Recruitment and Hiring Practices	Specifically targeting PWD job applicants and employing accessible hiring and training programs (Scullion, 2000; Hearne, 1991; Erickson et al., 2014). Employers can also target barriers that impede PWD from applying and participating in the recruitment process – e.g. explicit equal opportunity job advertisements, training human resource associates and managers on appropriate interviewing techniques etc. (Maier et al., 2012; Younes, 2001).
Partnerships	Employers can establish peer networks with vocational rehab agencies, employers and/or recruiters experienced with employing PWD, and other experts; partnerships give employers access to efficacious knowledge, solutions and resources necessary to implement reasonable accommodation effectively (Unger 2007; Hagner et al., 1995; Inge et al., 2000; Kalef et al., 2014)